Interaction around Corrective Feedback in Elementary English Classes in Taiwan

by

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Contents

List of Appendices

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Abbreviations

CF	Corrective Feedback
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
SCT	Sociocultural Theory
FL	Foreign Language
SL	Second Language
CO1, …, CO6	Classroom Observation One, …, Classroom Observation Six
INT1, …, INT7	Teacher Interview One, …, Teacher Interview Seven
INL1, …, INL4	Learner Interview One, …, Learner Interview Four

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my own work, and I confirm that this thesis has not been submitted for a degree at another university.

Abstract

This is a multiple case study which investigates interaction around teachers' corrective feedback on learners' oral errors in three elementary English classrooms in Taiwan through classroom observations, teacher interviews, and learner interviews. In response to the problematic issues in existing corrective feedback research, this study has carried out an inductive microanalysis of the classroom data. The results indicate that current literature does not account for the complexity of the interaction around corrective feedback which is evidenced in the classroom data of this study. The findings of this study show a series of moves such as scaffolding, the use of nonverbal corrective feedback strategies, the use of objects as corrective feedback techniques, the use of clusters of corrective feedback strategies, deliberate language play by the learners, socialisation between the teacher and the learners as well as among learners as part of corrective feedback episodes. The findings of this study also reveal that corrective feedback can occur but takes a special shape in form-oriented classrooms. The features observed in the data of this study reflect a need to research into corrective feedback in elementary EFL classrooms as well as classrooms where the instruction focus of teachers is on linguistic forms.

Chapter 1
Introduction

1.1 Overview

This is a small-scale multiple case study which investigates classroom interaction around teachers' corrective feedback (CF) on learners' oral errors in three elementary year-six English classrooms in Taiwan. The motivations for conducting this study will be explained first. The subsequent sections will illustrate the background information for this study and the research design of this study. The last section is a summary of this chapter.

1.2 Motivations for Conducting this Study

There are two main reasons why I decided to carry out this study. The first reason is that not many studies researched into teachers' CF on learners' oral errors in elementary classrooms where English was taught as a foreign language (see Chapter 2). Only five studies were conducted in Taiwan after a search of journal articles, books, PhD theses, and Master's dissertations of Taiwan, with the key words of error correction, corrective feedback (CF), and their Chinese translations (National Digital Library of Theses and Dissertations in Taiwan, 2016; NCL Periodical Information Center, 2016; Taiwan Academic Online, 2018). These five studies are Li's (2002) published journal article which investigated CF and learner repair in an elementary English classroom, Chien's (2008) Master's dissertation which investigated CF and learner uptake on one elementary year-six classroom, Huang's (2015) Master's dissertation which investigated the effects of CF on English pronunciation of the learners in three elementary year-five classrooms, Hsu's (2012b) Master's dissertation which investigated teachers' and young learners' perceptions of CF in an EFL classroom, and Yang's (2010) Master's dissertation which investigated oral errors, CF, and learner uptake on three elementary year-five classrooms. The great majority of the references of these studies were from research contexts other than Taiwan. These findings reflect a need for published studies on teachers' CF in elementary English classrooms in Taiwan. The second motivation for carrying out

this study relates to the context of English language learning in Taiwan. Learners start to study English at different ages in different elementary schools in Taiwan. The number of teachers, the number of learners, and the coursebook used in each classroom also differ from school to school (see Section 1.3 below). Besides, teachers with different teaching experiences, different academic backgrounds, or different perspectives on CF may have an effect on their provision of CF in class. Thus, there is a need to investigate whether there are common and unique features regarding the use of CF by different teachers in different elementary schools.

1.3 Elementary English Education in Taiwan

Taiwan, aka the Republic of China, is an island located in East Asia. Since 1968, the public education has become compulsory from elementary school where learners are between 6 years old and 12 years old to junior high school where learners are between 12 years old and 15 years old (MOE, 2018). In Taiwan, Chinese is the official language; Taiwanese, Hakka, and Austronesian are the most spoken dialects. Learners now need to study Chinese as well as one of the three dialects chosen by learners themselves in elementary school. Learners in Taiwan used to study English from junior high school, but in 2001, the government implemented a new policy, Grade 1-9 Curriculum of Elementary and Junior High School Education (MOE, 2005 and 'nd'), so learners had to study English from Grade 5 of the elementary education from 2001. A few years later, in order to increase international competence and fulfil the expectation of the general public, learners from the academic year 2005/06 have to study English from Grade 3 of the elementary education when they are around 8 years old (MOE, 2008). In other words, in elementary education, learners now have to study three languages, i.e. English, Chinese, and one dialect. English is taught as a foreign language in Taiwan, so Taiwan belongs to an EFL context.

There are three aims in elementary English education: to cultivate the basic communicative skills of learners; to generate their interest in learning English; and to gain an understanding of culture of other countries (MOE, 2008). The Ministry of Education has also set up detailed competence benchmarks for elementary English education. For example, by the end of elementary education, learners should be able to understand and respond to commonly used sentences in daily life, actively and

happily read English materials other than their coursebook by themselves, and understand cultures and important festivals of other countries (MOE, 2008). The Ministry of Education also encourages teachers to provide feedback for learners instead of always giving a grade. Additionally, teachers are encouraged by the government to assess the listening ability and speaking ability of the learners through oral practices, role plays, pair work, and team work rather than written tests (MOE, 2008). Despite of these aims, the education system of Taiwan is still test-oriented. The exams and tests in elementary English classrooms are usually done through written exams and involve the examination of vocabulary items, phonics, sentence patterns, and Chinese translations of English words and sentences.

In Taiwan, the government does not restrict the minimum age to start learning English in elementary school, so since 2001, learners may have studied English from Grade 1 when they are around 6 years old. Schools themselves are also able to choose the english coursebook used in class as long as it fulfils the governmental standard. The number of learners in each classroom varies enormously, depending on the location and size of the school (see Figures 1.1-1.4 below) (see Section 3.52). The number of English lessons per week also varies from school to school. In some schools, learners may have two English lessons per week, but in other schools, learners may have three lessons or more than three lessons per week. In most of the English classrooms, only one teacher teaches in class, but in some classrooms, there might be two teachers in one class. These two teachers may co-teach a lesson (see Section 3.52 and Chapter 5), or one teacher teaches, and the other teacher assists that teacher.

Generally speaking, when teachers teach English in class, most of the classroom interaction is between a teacher and the whole class, between the teacher and a group of learners, and between the teacher and an individual learner. Learners may also play games, have tests, or engage in activities in class, but group work or presentations do not happen often mainly due to the number of learners in one class, time restrictions, and the lesson plans of teachers. When teachers teach English, most of the time is spent on mechanical drillings of words, sentence patterns, coursebook texts, or phonics. Teachers also spend time teaching linguistic forms such as phonology, spelling, and grammar. In addition to coursebook materials, some

teachers may provide supplementary materials. The following four figures are taken from the Internet, providing information about what elementary English classes in Taiwan may look like.

Figure 1.1 Catholic Shangzhi Elementary School (2011)

Figure 1.2 Deyaunchu (2011)

Figure 1.3 Hsu (2012a)

Figure 1.4 Shin Shing Primary School (2010)

1.4 Research Design

After illuminating the background information on the research context, this section will provide an overview of the research design. Because of a lack of CF studies in elementary EFL classrooms in Asia and the distinctive features which have emerged from the classroom data and the interview data, this study will investigate teachers' CF in elementary English classrooms in Taiwan and focus on the classroom interaction around teachers' CF. In order to achieve these aims, the following research questions have been set up.

What is distinctive about the characteristics of the interaction around corrective feedback in three elementary EFL classrooms in Taiwan under investigation?

1) When do the teachers provide corrective feedback on their learners' oral English errors during a lesson?
2) How do the teachers provide corrective feedback on their learners' oral English errors during a lesson?

Due to the research aims and research questions, this study will focus on teachers' behaviour in class. In order to understand their behaviour, teachers' perspectives on and decision-making around CF will be discussed. Learners' views on their teachers' CF will also be specified. The research data will be collected through classroom observations and interviews, with the assistance of the notes taken during the observations. The data will primarily be qualitative, with the assistance of minor quantitative data, and an inductive microanalysis of the qualitative data will be conducted. The philosophical position of this study therefore relates to an interpretive paradigm (see Section 3.3), and a qualitative approach will be adopted (see Section 3.4).

The data-collection procedure in each classroom is as follows. The first teacher interview will be conducted before all of the classroom observations and learner interviews. This interview will be both audio-recorded and video-recorded, and it will last around 30 minutes. After the first teacher interview, the English lessons will be observed for two consecutive weeks. All of the observations will be both audio-recorded and video-recorded, and each lesson lasts for 40 minutes. The teacher will be interviewed after each observed lesson. All of the interviews will be audio-recorded, and each of them will last around 30-45 minutes. During these two weeks' classroom observations, learner interviews will also be conducted. Depending on the number of learners in class, there will be either 2 or 3 learners in each interview and either 2 or 4 interviews in each classroom. All of the learner interviews will be both audio-recorded and video-recorded, and each interview will last around 45 minutes. A detailed description of the research design will be elaborated in Chapter 3.

1.5 Summary

This chapter firstly explained the reasons for carrying out this study. This was followed by an introduction of the research context of this study and a brief overview of the research design. The next chapter will firstly review literature on teachers' CF and then elaborate on the problematic issues in CF traditions.

Chapter 2
Literature Review

2.1 Overview

This study investigates distinctive characteristics of the interaction around teachers' corrective feedback (CF) on learners' oral English errors in class and focuses on when teachers provide CF on errors and how teachers provide CF on errors. There will be two parts in this chapter. The first part will review literature on teachers' provision of CF, and the second part will discuss problematic issues in CF traditions.

Part One Literature on Teachers' Corrective Feedback

This section will review literature on teachers' CF. This includes the definition of an error, the definition of CF, the theoretical assumption of CF, the timing of providing CF, the method of providing CF, and a review of studies on CF.

2.2 The Definition of Error

Errors are defined differently in first language (L1) learning and second language (L2) learning. Corder (1967: 165) claimed that in L1, a sentence like 'This mummy chair' is considered as evidence of a young child's learning process rather than an error. However, in an L2 classroom, this would be an erroneous sentence. Besides, Corder (1967) differentiated between a mistake and an error in L2 learning. To Corder, a mistake may result from tiredness and strong emotions, so people are able to correct a mistake on their own; on the other hand, an error is due to incomplete knowledge which needs to be reconstructed to date. Richards and Schmidt (2010) agreed with Corder's (1967) definitions and further divided errors into 'vocabulary (lexical error), pronunciation (phonological error), grammar (syntactic error), misunderstanding of a speaker's intention or meaning (interpretive error), and production of the wrong communicative effect (pragmatic error) (p. 201)'. CF studies usually investigate vocabulary errors, pronunciation errors, and grammar errors (Brown, 2016). Despite these clear definitions, in practice, it is not easy to determine whether what a person makes is a mistake or an error (Corder, 1967). This seems

reasonable because teachers do not always fully understand the language abilities of learners, and nor do researchers usually draw a distinction between a mistake and an error. For example, some used 'error' to refer to both errors and mistakes (e.g. Bussmann, 2006), and the word 'mistake' was never mentioned in the following CF studies: Brown (2016), Davies (2006), Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006), Lee and Lyster (2016a and 2016b), Li (2010), Li, Zhu, and Ellis (2016), Llinares and Lyster (2014), Loewen and Philp (2006), Long, Inagaki, and Ortega (1998), Lyster (1998 and 2004), Lyster and Mori (2006), Lyster and Ranta (1997), Nassaji (2016), Panova and Lyster (2002), Pawlak and Tomczyk (2013), Sheen (2006), Wang and Loewen (2016), and Dilāns (2016). In addition to the ambiguous boundary between a mistake and an error in CF studies, an issue of the person who decides what counts as an error is also worth discussing. The reason is that researchers usually decide what counts as an error, as well as analysing and interpreting data according to the CF literature. Nonetheless, in reality, researchers and teachers do not always define errors in the same way. This problematic issue will be further discussed in Section 2.10 below.

2.3 The Definition of Corrective Feedback

In SLA, feedback is seen as giving learners information about the success or lack of success of their utterances, as well as drawing the attention of learners to their language production (Ellis, 2009; Gass with Behney and Plonsky, 2013). Thus, feedback performs either positive or negative functions (Ellis, 2009). Positive feedback confirms learners' correct utterances. On the other hand, negative feedback indicates what a learner says is not accurate or not normally acceptable, so it has a corrective purpose which alters or demands improvement of a learner's utterance (Chaudron, 1986; Ellis, 2009; Gass et al., 2013). In SLA, negative feedback is usually termed 'corrective feedback' (CF), which refers to a teacher's response, involving a corrective function, to a learner's erroneous linguistic utterance. However, in practice, the boundary between positive evidence and CF is often vague. For example, one type of CF, recasts, has dual functions, which represents either positive feedback or CF (Leeman, 2003). Without understanding a teacher's intention in class, it could be hard to identify whether a recast a teacher gives performs a positive function or a corrective function. Seedhouse (2010: 5) also

suggested that ‘a single utterance may be simultaneously expressing approval on one level…nonetheless conducting correction on another level’ (see also Tarplee, 1989). Likewise, Ellis (2009) also argued that positive feedback such as ‘Good’ and ‘Yes’ may ‘merely preface a subsequent correction or modification of the utterance (Ellis, 2009: 3)’. In addition to the blurred boundary between positive feedback and negative feedback, there is sometimes a mismatch between teachers’ understanding of what counts as CF and researchers’ understanding of what counts as CF. This problematic issue will be further discussed in Section 2.11 below. Lastly, CF is often a synonym of ‘error correction’, ‘negative feedback’, and ‘negative evidence’ (e.g. Gass, 2003; Gass and Mackey, 2015; Kim, 2004; Leeman, 2007; Li, 2014; Loewen, 2012). This study will principally use ‘CF’ because it is the most customary term at present.

2.4 The Theoretical Assumption of Corrective Feedback

After reviewing the definition of an error and the definition of CF in SLA, this section will illustrate the theoretical assumption of CF. Researchers hold similar, different, or even opposing views on L2 learning. Some researchers oppose CF because they believe positive evidence is sufficient for learning (e.g. Krashen, 1978). Some researchers argue that teacher input and learner output need to work together in order for SLA to take place (e.g. Swain, 1985). These different views all influence the development of CF’s theoretical assumption – the interaction hypothesis, which combines the Input Hypothesis, the Output Hypothesis, the Noticing Hypothesis, and focus-on-form instruction (Mackey, Abbuhl, and Gass, 2012).

2.4.1 Krashen’s Input Hypothesis

Back into the late 1970s and 1980s, there was an influential L2 learning hypothesis, Krashen’s Input Hypothesis, which claimed that languages are acquired in a predictable, universal order (Krashen, 1978, 1982, and 1985). Krashen’s Input Hypothesis believes that learners can move from their current L2 level, *i*, to the next level, *i*+1, under these two conditions. The first condition is that learning environments let learners have little anxiety and little negative feeling about L2 learning. The second condition is that the input learners receive is comprehensible, modified, and understandable, as well as containing *i*+1, only a step beyond learners’

current L2 level (Byram, 2000; Lightbown and Spada, 2013; Mackey et al., 2012; Pienemann, 2003; Ritchie and Bhatia, 1996). Krashen's Input Hypothesis therefore does not favour CF because modified positive evidence is enough for SLA to take place.

2.4.2 Swain's Output Hypothesis

Krashen's Input Hypothesis influenced SLA research in the 1980s but also received criticism (Pienemann, 2003). One leading criticism was made by Swain (1985), who claimed that comprehensible input is essential, but it alone is not sufficient for SLA to take place (Ellis, 2015; Long, 1996). Swain argued that learners need to have opportunities to produce output; otherwise, their production skills would possibly be behind their comprehension skills (Mackey et al., 2012). For this reason, Swain (1985) pointed out the importance of language use and suggested learners should be pushed to produce output. Swain's comprehensible or pushed output hypothesis (1985, 1995, and 2005) is part of CF's theoretical assumption because Suzuki (2004: 2) claimed that CF is 'a pedagogical means of offering modified input to students, which could consequently lead to modified output by the students'.

2.4.3 Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis

In the early 1990s, there was another extension of the Input Hypothesis, which paid attention to learner awareness, and a principal one was Schmidt's (1990) Noticing Hypothesis. To Schmidt (1990), unconscious language learning is not possible, so he argued that consciously noticed input is an essential and sufficient condition for learners to convert input to intake. The Noticing Hypothesis is also a component of CF's theoretical assumption because Wang and Loewen (2016) stated that learners need to notice the differences between their own output and their teachers' subsequent input in order for SLA to take place.

2.4.4 Focus-on-Form Instruction

In similar time as Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis was introduced, Long (1988 and 1991) discussed three concepts, 'focus-on-form', 'focus-on-forms', and 'focus-on-meaning' (see also Long, 2015; Long and Robinson, 1998). The term 'form' refers to linguistic items like phonology, lexis, and grammar, and the term 'meaning' refers to communication of meaning (e.g. Ellis, 2001 and 2015; Lightbown and Spada, 2013).

As the names suggest, ‘focus-on-forms’ means the instruction focuses primarily on linguistic forms, which Ellis (2015) claimed is a traditional grammar teaching approach (see also Collentine, 2009; Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen, 2002). On the other hand, ‘focus-on-meaning’ means the instruction focuses on communication of meaning, which is a traditional notion of the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach (Byram, 2000; Lightbown and Spada, 2013; Mackey, 2007).

Traditional CLT advocates were against CF because they claimed that CF had the potential of interrupting the flow of communication, obstructing learners’ willing to communicate freely, and being ineffective for the development of the implicit knowledge (Krashen, 1985 in Loewen, 2012). Long opposed this traditional notion, a pure focus-on-meaning approach, because learners still made very basic grammatical errors in L2 speaking and writing even after several years’ learning (Swain, 1991 in Long, 2015). Thus, there was a shift from sorely focus-on-meaning instruction to focusing more attention on linguistic forms, which terms ‘focus-on-form’ instruction. In SLA, ‘focus-on-form’ instruction means that when a comprehension or production problem occurs in meaning-focused instruction, teachers temporarily draw learners’ attention to linguistic forms by providing CF in order to get the meaning across (Doughty, 2003; Doughty and Williams, 1998; Ellis, 2015; Long and Robinson, 1998).

2.4.5 The Interaction Hypothesis

In 1996, Long combined all of the above hypotheses and presented the Interaction Hypothesis, which claimed that negotiation for meaning between teachers and learners facilitate learning. The reason was that this interaction connects teachers’ input, learners’ internal capacities, and learners’ output in a productive way. Long’s Interaction Hypothesis involves drawing learners’ attention to particularly selective linguistic forms, so learners’ noticing of gaps includes a mismatch between their original output and teachers’ subsequent input. Thus, unlike Krashen’s Input Hypothesis, whose input only involves positive evidence, the teacher input in Long’s Interaction Hypothesis is used to resolve a communication breakdown, so it could perform a corrective function.

Long's Interaction Hypothesis was updated by Gass and Mackey (2007) in the late 2000s, and they termed it the 'interactionist approach' (see also Ellis, 2015). Mackey et al., (2012: 9) claimed that when teachers and learners meet a communication breakdown, strategies such as 'clarification requests, confirmation checks, repetition, and recasts' might be used to resolve this issue. Mackey et al. (2012) argued that the input teachers provide might be modified in order to become comprehensible to learners. They also claimed that this interaction process might attract learners' attention to the gap (Schmidt, 1990) between their interlanguage (Selinker, 1972 in Ellis, 2015) and the correct L2 utterance. Consequently, the interaction approach accounts for L2 learning through teacher input (i.e. exposure to the L2), learner output (i.e. production of the L2 involving a communication breakdown), the teachers' modified input (i.e. CF), and the learners' pushed output (e.g. Gass et al., 2013). After a communication problem occurs in focus-on-form instruction, teachers provide CF strategies such as recasts and repetition to negotiate meaning with learners. After the learners notice the mismatch between the teachers' input and their preceding output, they have an intake of the teachers' input and then produce modified output by themselves or produce output pushed by the teachers in order to get the meaning across.

The above review of literature on the theoretical assumption of CF implies that CF traditions focus on meaning-oriented classes and do not consider form-oriented classes where the instruction of the teachers focuses on learners' acquisition of linguistic forms. This problematic issue will be further discussed in Section 2.16 below. The next two sections will introduce the practical CF strategies teachers use to treat learners' oral errors in an L2 classroom. Due to the foci of this study, Section 2.5 will review when teachers correct oral errors in class and Section 2.6 will review how teachers correct oral errors in class (see Hendrickson's (1978) five fundamental questions regarding CF).

2.5 When do Teachers Provide Corrective Feedback in Class?

There are usually two options open to teachers when they decide upon the timing of correcting oral errors in class. The first option is to provide CF as soon as an error happens, and the second option is to give delayed CF after an activity is completed

(Li et al., 2016). The audio-lingual method expects teachers to provide CF immediately, so learners do not form bad habits (Li et al., 2016). The CLT approach also recommends immediate CF because it helps draw the attention of learners to linguistic forms in a meaning-focused classroom (Doughty, 2001). Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis suggested that providing immediate CF through recasts could facilitate the interlanguage development of learners because it allows learners to notice the gap between their own output (i.e. erroneous utterances) and teachers' input (i.e. a recast) (see also Doughty, 2001). Li et al. (2016) also claimed that SLA theorists often support immediate CF because it helps with the development of implicit knowledge. Delayed CF also has its supporters. Although Scrivener (2005) recommended immediate CF in an accuracy-oriented activity (see also Ellis, 2009), he suggested that teachers provide delayed CF in a fluency-oriented activity so that the flow of the communication is not interrupted (Hedge, 2000). Cognitive psychologists also support delayed CF because learners do not need to have dual foci (i.e. focusing on both meaning and form) when they perform a difficult, challenging task (Quinn, 2014). The literature reviewed above suggests that the instructional focus, either focusing on meaning or focusing on linguistic forms, has an effect on whether to provide immediate CF or delayed CF.

In empirical studies, immediate CF is a more heated topic than delayed CF. Li et al. (2016) stated that few SLA studies look at delayed CF, and even fewer studies examine the different effects of immediate CF and delayed CF (see also Lightbown and Spada, 2013). This claim is echoed with existing CF studies because the timing of providing CF is either missing or excluded from the following meta-analysis studies on CF: Russell and Spada (2006), Mackey and Goo (2007), Li (2010), Lyster and Saito (2010), and Brown (2016).

2.6 How do Teachers Provide Corrective Feedback in Class?

The central focus of this study investigates how teachers correct oral errors in class, so this section will introduce the six classic CF strategies identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997) when they examined the frequency and effectiveness of CF strategies in four elementary French immersion classrooms in Canada. Lyster and Ranta's study has been chosen because these six verbal CF strategies have been massively

used by the subsequent CF studies for data coding, data analysis, and discussion. These CF strategies have also been re-classified by later researchers. For these reasons, these six verbal strategies reviewed in Table 2.1 below make references to Lyster and Ranta (1997), Ellis (2006 and 2009), Loewen and Nabei (2007), Lyster (2004), Lyster and Saito (2010), and Seedhouse, (1997). Lyster and Ranta (1997) investigated French classes; in order to present examples from an English class, all of the examples in the right column are taken from Panova and Lyster (2002: 582-585).

Table 2.1 Six Verbal Corrective Feedback Strategies (Lyster and Ranta, 1997)

Input-Providing CF Strategies (Ellis, 2009): A teacher provides a correct utterance for learners. These strategies are also known as 'Other-Repair' (Loewen and Nabei, 2007) and 'Reformulations' (Lyster and Saito, 2010).	
Explicit Correction: A teacher explicitly provides a correct form and tells learners what they said is erroneous (Lyster and Ranta, 1997).	L: The day…**tomorrow**. T: Yes. **No, the day before yesterday.** Panova and Lyster (2002: 584)
Recasts: A teacher reformulates all or part of a learner's utterance to a correct one (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) (see also Seedhouse, 1997).	L: **/dange ˈrus/ (Dangerous)** T: Yeah, good. **Dangerous.** Panova and Lyster (2002: 582)
Output-Prompting CF Strategies (Ellis, 2009): A teacher prompts learners to produce a correct utterance. These strategies are also known as 'Self-Repair' (Loewen and Nabei, 2007), 'Prompts' (Lyster, 2004), and 'Output-Pushing' (Ellis, 2006).	
Metalinguistic Clues: A teacher only provides comments, information, or yes/no questions related to the correct utterance. This teacher does not explicitly give the correct answer (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) (see also Seedhouse, 1997).	L: **Nouvelle Ecosse…** (L1) T: Oh, but **that's in French**. Panova and Lyster (2002: 584)

Elicitation: A teacher directly elicits the correct utterance from the learner (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). (1) A teacher pauses before the error; sometimes, it may be preceded either by metalinguistic comments or by repetition of the error (see also Seedhouse, 1997). (2) A teacher asks a question, excluding a yes/no question, to elicit the correct utterance. (3) A teacher sometimes asks learners to reformulate what they said (see also Seedhouse, 1997).	T: In a fast food restaurant, how much do you tip? L: **No money.** T: **What's the word?** Panova and Lyster (2002: 584)
Repetition: A teacher repeats, in isolation, what a learner said (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) (see also Seedhouse, 1997).	T: Remember this is…What is this called? L: **Comma.** T: **Comma?** Panova and Lyster (2002: 584-585)
Clarification Request: A teacher indicates that he misunderstands a learner's utterance or a learner's utterance is erroneous in some way so that a repetition or reformulation is necessary (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) (see also Seedhouse, 1997).	L: my city…where I **live**. T: **Now?** Panova and Lyster (2002: 583)

As shown in Table 2.1, these six CF strategies have been re-classified into input-providing CF strategies and output-prompting CF strategies. The input-providing CF strategies supply learners with a correct form through explicit correction and recasts. On the other hand, through the output-prompting CF strategies, learners are pushed to modify their own error and produce a correct utterance (see also Sheen, 2010 and Yang and Lyster, 2010). Researchers also try to classify these CF strategies in terms of their explicitness and implicitness (e.g. Ellis, 2009; Lyster and Saito, 2010; Sheen, 2007a). However, there has not been a consistent agreement on which strategies are explicit CF and which strategies are implicit CF. Egi (2007 in Yang and Lyster, 2010) stated that classifying CF into implicit strategies and explicit strategies may be

problematic because the classifications may vary according to the salience of input and the degree of noticing. Similarly, Ellis (2009) also argued that these categories may be crude because they fail to consider the variation within a single CF. Their arguments are echoed with Lyster and Ranta's (1997) categories which put recasts as implicit CF but a short recast which focused on one word only as explicit CF. Making references to different researchers (e.g. Ammar and Spada, 2006; DeKeyser, 1993; Ellis et al., 2006; Loewen and Nabei, 2007; Sheen, 2007b; Yang and Lyster, 2010), Lyster and Saito (2010) also put recasts into implicit CF but acknowledged that recasts could range from implicit to explicit. Likewise, Sheen (2006) and Loewen and Philp (2006) claimed that there are different forms of recasts, such as combining a recast with another CF strategy, providing recasts with rising or falling intonation, and only recasting part of the erroneous utterance.

Despite the inconsistent categories of explicit CF strategies and implicit CF strategies, CF studies have heavily based their research on these six verbal strategies identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997) as well as the research foci of Lyster and Ranta's study, the frequency and effectiveness of these six CF strategies. The generally agreed results of CF studies from 1997 to 2006 demonstrated that the most frequently occurred CF strategy is recasts (Ellis et al., 2001; Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Panova and Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004). Recasts help with L2 acquisition (Han, 2002; Mackey and Philp, 1998). Explicit CF is more effective than implicit CF (Ellis et al., 2006), and prompts are more effective than recasts (Ammar and Spada, 2006; Lyster, 2004). Elicitation is the most effective implicit CF for eliciting a successful learner response (e.g. Ellis et al., 2001 and Loewen, 2004). The foci of CF traditions, the frequency and effectiveness of the CF strategies and whether CF strategies contribute to L2 learning, are also echoed with the five meta-analysis CF studies reviewed below.

2.7 Five Meta-Analysis Studies on Corrective Feedback

Sections 2.7-2.9 will illustrate empirical studies on CF, and the review will start with the five meta-analysis CF studies: Russell and Spada (2006), Mackey and Goo (2007), Li (2010), Lyster and Saito (2010), and Brown (2016).

2.7.1 Russell and Spada's (2006) Study

On the basis of 15 studies, either laboratory-based or classroom-based, conducted from 1988 to 2003, Russell and Spada (2006) looked at the effects of CF on L2 grammar learning, and their results suggested that overall, both oral CF and written CF are beneficial for L2 learning.

2.7.2 Mackey and Goo's (2007) Study

One year later, Mackey and Goo (2007) looked at 26 studies, either laboratory-based or classroom-based, conducted from 1990 to 1996. They found recasts are more effective than other types of CF, which disagrees with the generally agreed findings (e.g. Ammar and Spada, 2006 and Lyster, 2004). Mackey and Goo (2007) also found that learners' performance in delayed tests is better than their performance in the immediate post-tests, and in general, CF is more effective in foreign language (FL) settings than in second language (SL) settings. Russell and Spada's (2006) study and Mackey and Goo's (2007) study both paid attention to the extent to which CF strategies contribute to L2 learning. Mackey and Goo's study also drew attention to the effectiveness of CF strategies but achieved a result that was different from the commonly agreed findings.

2.7.3 Li's (2010) study

In 2010, Li's meta-analysis investigated the effectiveness of CF in SLA in 33 either laboratory-based or classroom-based studies. His result coincides with the other meta-analysis studies reviewed here that CF is effective for SLA. Li (2010) claimed that the effect of CF could sustain over time. In line with Mackey and Goo (2007), Li found that CF in FL settings is more effective than CF in SL settings. Li (2010) also found that CF in laboratory-based studies is more effective than CF in classroom-based studies. Regarding the total duration of receiving CF, Li (2010) claimed that shorter CF treatments of up to 50 minutes are more effective than longer treatments of over 2 hours. Finally, regarding teachers' native language background, Li (2010 in Brown, 2016) pointed out that compared to non-native speakers, CF is more effective from native speakers. These results demonstrate that effectiveness of CF strategies and the extent to which CF strategies contribute to SLA are the primary foci of CF studies.

2.7.4 Lyster and Saito's (2010) study

Lyster and Saito (2010) also researched into the effectiveness of oral CF on L2 development on 15 classroom-based studies which were conducted from 1988 to 2010. Like the result of Russell and Spada's (2006) study and Mackey and Goo's (2007) study, overall, oral CF facilitates L2 development. Lyster and Saito (2010) reported that the effect of CF could last from the time CF is given to 2-6 weeks after the CF is provided. Lyster and Saito (2010) also found that recasts, prompts, and explicit correction all have significant effect on L2 learning, but prompts are more effective than recasts. The last finding again matches the generally agreed result. Lyster and Saito (2010) also reported that younger learners could benefit more from CF than older learners and young learners are more sensitive to CF than adults. The latter finding does not match the result of the previous studies which found that adults are more sensitive to recasts than children (e.g. Long and Robinson, 1998; Oliver, 1995; Ortega and Long, 1997). Lyster and Saito's (2010) study again focused on the effectiveness of CF strategies, but their study also drew attention to the influence CF has on learners of different age groups. Both Li's (2010) study and Lyster and Saito's (2010) study examined the sustained effect of CF strategies.

2.7.5 Brown's (2016) Study

Like Lyster and Saito's (2010) study, Brown (2016) only examined classroom-based studies which involved various contexts (SL and FL; from elementary to university) and seven different L2s (e.g. English, Chinese, Spanish). In line with the results of previous CF studies, Brown also found that recasts occurred most frequently. Other major foci of Brown's study are that he examined the frequencies of CF strategies in terms of error types, learner differences, teacher differences, the instructional focus, and contextual variables. Brown (2016) claimed that CF researchers usually investigate three types of error: phonological errors, lexical errors, and grammatical errors (see also Lyster, 1998). Brown reported that learners receive the most CF on grammatical errors (43%) and the least CF on phonological errors (22%). About the learner differences, Brown's study demonstrated that teachers tend to give more recasts to higher proficiency learners. Children receive a similar proportion of recasts and prompts as adults, but children receive more CF on lexical errors and less CF on phonological errors than adults.

Brown also considered individual teacher differences, the instructional focus, and contextual variables. Back to the early 2000s, Mackey, Polio, and McDonough's (2004 in Gurzynski-Weiss, 2016) study reported that more experienced ESL instructors provided more CF. In Brown's (2016) study, he focused on the relationship between error types and teaching experience and reported that teachers with more teaching experience pay less attention to phonological errors and more attention to lexical errors. Regarding teachers' training experience, Brown claimed that teachers who receive more training give more prompts. Brown also looked at the relationship between the instructional focus and CF. He reported that teachers in grammar-focused teaching provide more prompts than teachers in meaning-focused instruction. Lastly, Brown examined the relationship among contextual variables, error types, and CF. In his study, teachers in SL contexts correct more phonological errors than teachers in FL contexts. Teachers' correction on lexical errors is similar, and grammatical errors are being corrected more often in FL contexts than in SL contexts. Brown's study implies that the frequencies of teachers' CF could be affected by multiple factors such as error types, learner differences, individual teacher differences, the instructional focus, and context.

2.8 Corrective Feedback Studies on Children

The current study only examines elementary school learners, so this section will briefly talk about CF studies on children, excluding studies on both adults and children. A review of the literature suggests that CF studies on children were usually conducted in settings other than Asian elementary EFL classrooms, e.g. Oliver (1995) in an ESL setting in Western Australia, Lyster and Ranta (1997) in French immersion classrooms in Canada, Lyster (1998) in French immersion classrooms, Van den Branden (1997) in Dutch class in Belgium, Mackey and Oliver (2002) in ESL class in Australia, Lyster (2004) in French class in Canada, and Ammar and Spada (2006) in ESL class in Canada. The above studies either researched into languages other than English or settings other than EFL. In other words, none of these CF studies on children researched into Asian classrooms. Additionally, these studies also follow CF traditions because the effectiveness of recasts and prompts has gradually become a popular topic. For example, Lyster (2004) examined 179 fifth-grade learners who were learning grammatical gender in French in Canada. The

results indicated that in oral production tasks, prompts are effective in the immediate post-test, but in general, there are no significant differences between prompts and recasts. In 2006, Ammar and Spada investigated recasts and prompts on 64 sixth-grade ESL learners in Canada. The results indicated that prompts are more effective than recasts overall. Ammar and Spada (2006) also found a relationship between CF strategies and the proficiency of learners because prompts have a profound impact upon lower-level learners but high-level learners benefit equally from both prompts and recasts. Thus, like Brown's (2016) study, learner differences also influence the results of Ammar and Spada's (2006) study. Lyster's (2004) study and Ammar and Spada's (2006) study again show an inconsistent result about the effectiveness of CF strategies.

2.9 Corrective Feedback Studies in Elementary English Classes in Taiwan

The current study investigates elementary English classes in Taiwan. Due to the relatively recent introduction of elementary English education, only a few CF studies have been found, including one published journal article and 4 Master's dissertations (see Section 1.2). Among these studies, the focus of the accessible four studies is close to CF traditions because they investigated either the frequency of different types of errors (Chien, 2008; Yang, 2010), the frequency of CF (Chien, 2008; Hsu, 2012a), the relationship between errors and CF (Chien, 2008; Yang, 2010), or the effectiveness of CF on the performance of learners (Chien, 2008; Huang, 2015; Hsu, 2012a; Yang 2010). The great majority of references these studies had quoted were in contexts other than Taiwan. Chien's (2008) study and Yang's (2010) study were based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997) framework.

The review of literature above reflects a need to research into CF on elementary EFL classes in Asia. In addition, many factors have an effect on the results of a study, e.g. the salience of teacher input and the degree of noticing (e.g. Sharwood Smith, 1993 and Sheen, 2004), learners' proficiency levels (e.g. Ammar and Spada, 2006), the research settings (laboratory-based studies vs. classroom-based studies; FL contexts vs. SL contexts) (e.g. Mackey and Goo, 2007), the instructional focus (focus-on-forms instruction vs. focus-on-form instruction) (Brown, 2016), learners' age groups

(Lyster and Saito, 2010), teachers' teaching experience (e.g. Mackey, Polio, and McDonough, 2004), and teachers' training experience (Brown, 2016). These findings also imply that the actual classroom interaction around CF is more complex than the one described in the theoretical assumption of CF (see Section 2.4 above). Accordingly, the subsequent sections will discuss problematic issues in CF traditions.

Part Two Problematic Issues in Existing Corrective Feedback Research

This section will discuss problematic issues in existing CF studies. The first two problematic issues relate to what has been mentioned in Section 2.2 and Section 2.3 that CF traditions do not consider perspectives of teachers on what counts as an error and what counts as CF at a given moment. Thus, literature of the perspectives of teachers on CF and decision-making of teachers around CF will be reviewed. The review of this relevant literature then relates to the next problematic issue in CF research that these studies do not pay attention to the social dimension of classroom interaction such as individual learner differences. Notions of sociocultural theory in relation to teachers' CF will then be reviewed. After this, problematic issues related to data coding, the diversity of CF strategies, and the theoretical assumption of CF will be discussed. The last section proposes that a more nuanced and integrated research approach is needed when CF researchers analyse the data.

2.10 Differences between Teachers' Definitions of Error and Researchers' Definitions of Error

In addition to the ambiguous boundary between a mistake and an error specified in Section 2.2, there is another problematic issue of the person who decides what an error is. The reason is that in CF studies, researchers usually define what counts as an error by themselves, as well as analysing data and interpreting data according to the CF literature (e.g. Lyster and Ranta, 1997). Nonetheless, in reality, researchers and teachers do not always define errors in the same way. For instance, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) coded an utterance as a 'listening comprehension error' while some of their teacher participants categorised it as a 'pronunciation error'. Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) also claimed that their teacher participants were sometimes unaware of the errors the researchers had identified and coded. Junqueira and Kim (2013)

reported one of their teacher participants did not acknowledge a pronunciation error they coded. These findings imply that when CF researchers code data, they do not take the perspectives of teachers into consideration. Another relevant issue to bring up is the behaviour of learners in class (Cook, 2000 and Johnson, 1992). Cook (2000: 71) claimed that a learner might play the language humorously to 'cause offence to his opponent, simultaneously raise laughter, and augment the sense of solidarity among his supporters'. Thus, when a learner plays with the pronunciation of a word for fun, this utterance does not relate to incomplete knowledge or tiredness, so it was neither an error nor a mistake. However, CF researchers seldom talk about learners' language play and how they would code or analyse this utterance. The current study investigates classroom interaction around teachers' CF. Teachers are the ones who take charge of error treatment in class, so it seems meaningful to consider the perspectives of teachers on what counts as an error when coding data.

2.11 Differences between Teachers' Definitions of Corrective Feedback and Researchers' Definitions of Corrective Feedback

Like the issue of the definition of an error, there is sometimes a mismatch between teachers' understanding of what counts as CF and researchers' understanding of what counts as CF. Junqueira and Kim (2013) claimed that both of the teachers in their study were occasionally neither unaware of nor directly acknowledge their provision of CF in oral communication classes. For example, Junqueira and Kim coded a learner's utterance 'Cloning people /ˈklɒnɪn ˈpipə/' as 'pronunciation error' and the follow-up teacher's utterance, 'say it again' as CF. However, Junqueira and Kim stated that the teacher did not acknowledge this error or her own CF. Likewise, in the other teacher's class, Junqueira and Kim coded part of a learner's utterance 'bored /bɔr/' as 'pronunciation error' and part of the teacher's follow-up utterance '/bɔrd/' as CF. Nonetheless, this teacher claimed that her behaviour was dialoguing with the learner and supporting what the learner had said. Thus, there was a mismatch between the researchers' definition of CF and the teachers' definition of CF. Such a mismatch also occurred in Mori's (2011) study and Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2005) study. Mori (2011) reported that one of the teacher participants in all of the interviews used the word 'induce' to describe his behaviour of persuading the

learners to talk. Nonetheless, Mori counted this 'inducement' behaviour as CF based on Chaudron's (1986) definition of CF. Similarly, Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005) reported that 51.7% of the CF moves recorded and coded by them went unnoticed by the teachers of their study. To Lasagabaster and Sierra, these teachers did not always notice or fully understand the nature of CF moves. These findings suggest that researchers interpret teachers' CF and code teachers' CF based on the literature (e.g. Chaudron, 1986 and Lyster and Ranta, 1997), so they do not consider the perspectives of teachers on what counts as CF, and nor do they pay attention to the intentions of teachers in class – whether they are providing CF at a given moment or not. Like what has been stated in Section 2.10 above, teachers usually take charge of CF in class, so it is important to consider the perspectives of teachers on and decision-making around CF. The relevant studies will be reviewed below before discussing the next problematic issue in CF studies.

2.12 Teachers' Perspectives and Decision-Making on Corrective Feedback

The review of research into teachers' perspectives on CF will start with studies which involved the use of a questionnaire or survey containing a five-point scale. These questionnaire studies or survey studies investigated teachers' views on CF through specific statements like 'Teachers should correct errors'. After this will be a review of studies on either teachers' perspectives on CF or reasons for their CF choices in class through multiple data-collection methods. The last section will review two recent small-scale case studies, both of which investigated teachers' views on CF as well as their CF practices in depth.

2.12.1 Teachers' Perspectives on Corrective Feedback through a Questionnaire or a Survey

In the earlier times, the great majority of studies investigated teachers' views on CF in contexts of non-Asian young adult learners or contexts of adult learners by a five-point scale's questionnaire or survey. There had been a lack of studies in Asian elementary EFL classrooms and also a lack of attention to reasons that influence CF practices of teachers in class. Most importantly, these questionnaire or survey studies only asked teachers the extent to which they agree or disagree with specific

statements, e.g. teachers should correct every error (McCargar, 1993). These questionnaire or survey questions do not directly connect to the classroom practices of teachers, and nor are their data-collection methods able to deeply understand the thoughts of teachers on their CF practices. These studies will be reviewed below.

Back in 1993, McCargar examined expectations of learners and expectations of teachers for teacher roles and learner roles in an ESL programme of one US university through a five-item scale's survey. The results reveal that the teachers question CF and clearly disagree that they should correct every error. Two years later, Kern (1995) investigated beliefs of university French teachers and beliefs of university learners about language learning in the US by a five-point scale's questionnaire. The results indicate that only 17% of the teachers agree it is important to speak a foreign language with a brilliant accent, and 50% of them disagree. In addition, 25% of the teachers agree that it would be difficult to get rid of an error later if learners are allowed to make this error in the beginning, and 50% of them disagreed.

In 1996, Schulz firstly investigated perspectives of foreign language teachers and learners on CF and the role of grammar at one US university by questionnaire containing a five-point scale. Then, in 2001, Schulz replicated her 1996's study in the US and Colombia. In 2001, the data of the US participants came from her 1996's study, and the data of the Colombian participants were collected from foreign language teachers and learners of eight post-secondary institutions. The results reveal that there are controversial findings on one questionnaire question, 'Students' oral errors should be corrected' (30% of the US teachers and 39% of the Colombian teachers agreed; 41% of the US teachers and 40% of the Colombian teachers disagreed). Another finding of Schulz's study is that around half of the teachers in both the US and Colombia disagree with one statement, 'Teachers should not correct students' pronunciation or grammatical errors in class unless these errors interfere with comprehensibility (Schulz, 2001: 258)'. This statement connects with the theoretical assumption of CF that teachers provide CF when there is a communication breakdown. This finding that around half of the teachers of Schulz's study disagreed with this statement also implies that these teachers may correct errors even when there is no communication breakdown. This implication then

relates to another problematic issue in CF traditions (see Section 2.16 below). As specified above, the results of the survey study and questionnaire studies presented so far are unable to deeply understand CF practices of individual teachers and their decision-making around CF.

In the mid-2000s, Bell (2005) also conducted a questionnaire study containing a five-point scale. This study investigated beliefs of postsecondary foreign language teachers about effective foreign language teaching and learning. The controversial results are found in the following two questionnaire questions, 'Effective foreign language teachers should correct an error as soon as it occurs' (40% agreed and 38% disagreed) and 'Foreign language learners should be corrected when they make a grammatical error' (34% agreed and 36% disagreed). Bell (2005) did not explain a reason for these inconsistent results; she claimed that they reflect the experiences these teachers have regarding when to provide CF and how to provide CF. Except for these less agreement statements, general consensus is achieved in the following statements: Effective foreign language teachers need to correct most of the errors (65% disagreed), use recasts as a preferred CF strategy (80% agreed), use indirect signals or clues such as metalinguistic questions, facial expressions, and body language to indicate an error (70.5% agreed), and explain why an utterance is incorrect when an error occurs (48% agreed). Bell's study implies that teaching experience of teachers might affect their thoughts on when to provide CF and how to provide CF. Her study also draws attention to the effectiveness of teaching, different types of CF strategies, and nonverbal CF strategies.

The last study reviewed here was conducted by Brown (2009) who explored and compared perceptions of foreign language teachers and learners of effective foreign language teaching at one US university, as well as exploring the relationship between responses of learners and language type and language level. The data were gathered through a revised version of the questionnaire used in Bell's (2005) study. The results show that the teachers value communicative approaches, feel it is not an obligation to correct all the errors, hesitate about giving explicit CF, and choose to provide less explicit and obtrusive CF. The result of Brown's study is echoed with the finding of Bell's (2005) study that teachers tend to prefer less explicit CF strategies.

All of the above studies investigated perspectives of teachers on CF, but the research focus has gradually been shifted to cover both the perspectives on CF and the perspectives on the effectiveness of language teaching. The more recent studies have also paid attention to different kinds of CF strategies, including the use of nonverbal CF strategies.

2.12.2 Teachers' Perspectives on or Decision-Making around CF through Multiple Data-Collection Methods

This section will review studies of the views of teachers on CF or their decision-making on CF (e.g. reasons that affect their CF choices in class) through multiple data-collection methods. Like Section 2.12.1 above, studies in elementary EFL contexts have still been absent. However, some of these studies reviewed in this section have started to investigate reasons for CF decisions of teachers in class, as well as signposting the differences between the beliefs of teachers on CF and their actual CF practices in class. The effectiveness of CF strategies and the influences different factors (e.g. time limitation and individual learner differences) have on CF practices of teachers also play a role here.

The first study reviewed was conducted by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2005), who researched into perspectives of teachers and learners on CF in the Basque Country. The teachers came from primary, secondary, and private language schools, and the learners were doing English Studies at university. The data-collection methods were very different from that of the studies in Section 2.12.1. Firstly, the learners and teachers watched a video which involved an English teacher teaching secondary learners. After this, the learners and teachers were asked to find out the CF provided by the teacher in the video, classify these different types of CF, rate their efficiency, and explain the reasons for their choices. The results reveal that the teachers thought CF becomes more efficient when it lasts for a longer time, contains more detailed explanations, and involves the use of different resources, e.g. the blackboard and body language. Regarding the efficiency of CF based on error types, the teachers recommended chorus repetition, individualisation repetition, and L1 and L2 contrast for pronunciation errors. For grammatical errors, the teachers suggested more detailed explanations, the use of the blackboard, and L1 and L2 contrast. As to lexical errors, they preferred spending more time on correction and using the

blackboard and body language. Surprisingly, these findings, to an extent, are echoed with the results of Bell's (2005) study where more teachers perceived effective foreign language teachers as the ones who use facial expressions and body language and give explanations as to why utterances are erroneous. Additionally, Bell's (2005) study and Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2005) study both drew attention to the effectiveness of CF strategies, which is a central focus of CF studies. Bell's (2005) study and Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2005) study also specified the use of nonverbal CF strategies. Lasagabaster and Sierra's (2005) study further pointed out the use of a blackboard when teachers deal with learner errors.

Another study reviewed here is Yoshida's (2008) research which relates to decision-making of teachers around CF. Yoshida explored the CF choices of two teachers and the CF preferences of seven learners in university Japanese language classes in Australia through classroom observations and stimulated-recall interviews. The finding of Yoshida's (2008) study is similar to the claim of Basturkmen, Loewen, and Ellis (2004: 268) that 'the teachers' stated beliefs offered only a partial window on practices, and thus confirming Pajares' (1992) conclusion that (stated) beliefs are an unreliable guide to reality'. For example, both teachers in Yoshida's (2008) study felt that using CF to elicit self-correction is generally more effective than recasts for L2 learning. However, in actual classroom practices, recasts are the most frequent type of CF they used in class. The teachers explained that they provided recasts because of time restrictions and an attempt to offer less frightening CF for learners, e.g. avoiding denying learners' utterances, avoiding explicitly correcting their errors, and avoiding asking them to correct errors by themselves in front of the whole class. Time limitation is also a reason that they were unable to provide a more detailed explanation after CF. Another finding of Yoshida's (2008) research relates to the consideration of the teachers of individual learner differences. One of the teachers explained that he provided elicitation or metalinguistic feedback to some learners because he thought these learners were able to notice the errors or respond quickly. Likewise, this teacher often provided recasts for one specific learner because he believed recasts were more effective for this learner. Consequently, different factors such as individual learner differences, time restrictions, self-esteem of learners, and perspectives of teachers on effective CF could all influence teachers' decisions as to how to provide CF in class.

More recently, Lee (2013) investigated CF and learner repair, as well as examining preferences of teachers and learners about CF at the ESL classrooms of one American university. The data were collected through questionnaires, follow-up interviews, and classroom observations. Lee (2013) reported that the teachers strongly disagreed they should correct all spoken errors and nor did they agree that they are obliged to provide CF. Like Bell's (2005) study and Brown's (2009) study, the teachers in Lee's (2013) study also favoured implicit CF, and their most preferred CF was recasts (50% agreed). Nonetheless, in spite of their personal views on CF, these teachers agreed that learners learn more when they offer CF, when they provide explicit CF, and when learners correct the errors and practise the correct utterance immediately after CF. These findings are again echoed with Pajares' (1992 in Basturkmen et al., 2004: 268) claim that '(stated) beliefs are an unreliable guide to reality'. Another finding of Lee's (2013) study is that the teachers disagreed CF embarrasses learners. To an extent, this view is different from the result of Yoshida's (2008) study that the teachers avoided denying the utterances of learners and avoided asking learners to correct errors by themselves in front of the whole class.

The above review demonstrates that researchers have started to investigate reasons that affect the CF practices of teachers, e.g. time limitation and individual learner differences. The results of these studies also imply that some of these reasons (e.g. time restrictions) lead to a mismatch between the beliefs of teachers on CF and their CF behaviour in class.

2.12.3 Small-Scale Case Studies on Teachers' Perspectives on and Decision-Making around CF through Multiple Data-Collection Methods

In Section 2.12.1 above, the reviewed studies used single data-collection methods and investigated views of numerous teachers on CF through statements like 'Teachers should correct errors'. In this section, both Mori's (2011) study and Junqueira and Kim's (2013) study deeply explored the perspectives of specific teachers on CF as well as the CF practices of these teachers in class through multiple data-collection methods.

The first study was conducted by Mori (2011) who explored the cognition of CF of two post-secondary EFL teachers in Japan and how their cognition informed their CF

practices. One of the teachers was British teaching English at a private language school where learners were planning to study overseas, and the other teacher was Japanese teaching at a university. The data were collected through non-participant classroom observations, interviews, and class materials. Regarding the beliefs of teachers on CF, the British teacher believed that language was a means for communication, and his provision of CF aimed to build the confidence, independence, and communicative abilities of the learners. Thus, he did not want to provide too much CF, and he took the needs of individual learners, the personalities of the learners, and their communication abilities into consideration when giving CF. The same factors such as the personalities of individual learners as well as time limitation also influenced this teacher's decisions on how to correct errors. Thus, this teacher appears to consider the notions of sociocultural theory when he provided CF (see Section 2.13 below). This British teacher also specified that his knowledge of the Japanese education system, the Japanese language, the English language, and the cultures of both countries all had an impact on his CF choices. Thus, L1 and L2 differences and cultural factors also affected his provision of CF. Lastly, this teacher pointed out that the school context (i.e. learners were preparing to study abroad), his previous learning and teaching experience in both Japan and the UK, the instructional focus, and the frequencies of learner errors all played a role in his decisions on error correction.

The other teacher in Mori's (2011) study taught English at university. This Japanese teacher claimed his learners were reluctant to talk, so he tried to enable them to speak English and to make errors. His thoughts influenced his CF strategies in class because he often guided and prompted learners to think of the correct words, structures, and sentences. Thus, this teacher appears to use output-prompting CF often (see Section 2.6 above). Another finding is that like the above British teacher, the decision-making around CF of this Japanese teacher was also influenced by his knowledge of the Japanese education system. Based on his learning and teaching experience, the pedagogical content knowledge of this teacher (e.g. the lexical problems learners may encounter in learning English) also influenced his CF choices. Lastly, this Japanese teacher reported that factors like time constraints and class materials also influenced his CF behaviour in class. Consequently, a variety of

factors had an effect on the perspectives on and decision-making around CF of both teachers of Mori's (2011) study.

The second study reported here was conducted by Junqueira and Kim (2013) who investigated the CF practices and CF beliefs of two ESL teachers, as well as the influences their beliefs, previous training, and experiences had on their CF practices. These two teachers taught oral communication classes at one American university, and the data were collected by non-participant classroom observations and stimulated-recall interviews. The results reveal that the course nature and personal beliefs influenced the views of both teachers on CF. To these two teachers, oral communication courses should focus on communication, so they did not value CF. For example, one of the teachers disliked interrupting the flow of communication, so she avoided giving CF or only used implicit CF such as repeating the correct utterance. The other teacher might correct pronunciation errors because to her, pronunciation was important to communication. The course nature, oral communication classes, also influenced the type of errors these two teachers corrected in class, i.e. pronunciation errors. The expectation of learners also affected the decisions of these two teachers on which type of errors to be corrected, i.e. pronunciation errors in one class and both pronunciation errors and grammatical errors in the other class. In addition to these factors, Junqueira and Kim (2013) reported that the learning experience, training experience, or teaching experience of these two teachers also had an impact on their CF practices.

Finally, in addition to the above studies, the existing literature also stated that the knowledge, beliefs, and thoughts of teachers can be affected by factors like the prior language learning experience of teachers, teacher education, and teaching experience (e.g. Borg, 2003; Cabaroglu and Roberts, 2000; Crookes and Arakaki, 1999; Freeman, 1993; Johnson, 1994; Woods, 1996). The existing literature also lists other factors that can affect the decision-making of teachers on CF, e.g. reasons that influence their decisions on when to correct errors in class and how to correct errors in class. These factors include the unexpected behaviour of learners in class (Johnson, 1992), the pacing of a lesson (Nunan, 1992a), the quality of the explanations of teachers (Nunan, 1992a), the unexpected difficulties learners encountered when engaging in an activity (Ulichny, 1996), and other contextual factors (e.g. the

requirements of learner parents, governmental policies, and working conditions) (Borg, 1998; Crookes and Arakaki, 1999).

In conclusion, the review of studies from Section 2.12.1 to Section 2.12.3 indicates a lack of research into the perspectives of teachers on CF and the decision-making of teachers around CF in Asian elementary EFL classrooms. In addition, there has been a shift on the research design and research focus of these studies. In the earlier times, researchers often examined the views of teachers about CF through a large scale of questionnaire studies or survey studies. More recently, researchers tend to conduct a small scale of studies through multiple methods (e.g. classroom observations and interviews). This enables an in-depth analysis of the perspectives of individual teachers on CF, as well as understanding reasons why specific CF strategies have been used in class (e.g. using recasts due to time restrictions). Lastly, more recent studies have demonstrated that a variety of factors can have an effect on teachers' provision of CF. Some of these factors relate to teachers' consideration of learners, e.g. the self-esteem of learners and individual learner differences. These factors are closely related to the notions of sociocultural theory and will be further illustrated in Section 2.13 below.

2.13 Teacher's Corrective Feedback in the Light of Sociocultural Theory

This section will illustrate another problematic issue in existing CF research in the light of sociocultural theory (SCT). SCT is seldom considered in CF studies, but SCT's relevance to CF has been pointed out by some researchers. Half a century ago, Corder (1967: 165) claimed that 'presenting a certain linguistic form to a learner in the classroom does not necessarily qualify it for the status of input…it is the child who selects what shall be the input'. Two decades ago, Firth and Wagner (1997) criticised Long's interaction hypothesis and argued that this cognitivist view of SLA is 'individualistic and mechanistic (p. 285)'. Their reason was that the interaction hypothesis fails to account for language from a social dimension. Atkinson (2002) also claimed that both language and language acquisition are social. Block (2003) further argued that a more socially informed approach could deepen our understanding of learners' L2 learning process. Block made a critique of Mackey,

Gass, and McDonough's (2000) study and claimed that they did not maximise the use of their data. Block's reason was that when learners interact, notions of learners' face-saving and negotiation of identity appear to take place, too. More recently, researchers have started to connect SCT to SLA (e.g. Gass and Mackey, 2012; Lantolf, Thorne, and Poehner, 2015; Lightbown and Spada, 2013). Ellis (2015) acknowledged Block's (2003) claim, so Ellis argued that 'the social context is the actual site of learning (p. 221)'. Ellis (2015) also opposed the idea of a universal sequence of SLA. To Ellis, learners' learning varies from one another.

Despite the attention to SCT in SLA, SCT has not been a focus of CF traditions. Section 2.12 above indicates factors such as individual learner differences, the personalities of learners, and the self-esteem of learners can have an influence on teachers' provision of CF. It is therefore important for CF studies to take SCT into consideration in attempt to have a more comprehensive understanding and explanations of the CF practices of teachers in class. The following sections will review three notions of SCT which relate to teachers' CF in SLA, i.e. the zone of proximal development, mediation, and scaffolding.

2.13.1 The Zone of Proximal Development

SCT was firstly developed by Lev Vygotsky (1978) who researched into the relationship between learning and development of children. Vygotsky (1978) claimed that the developmental process is slower than the learning process, and learning, which 'presupposes a specific social nature (p. 39)', creates the zone of proximal development (ZPD). What he meant is that when a child interacts or cooperates with others, learning could rouse internal developmental processes of a child. This sequence then leads to the ZPD, which is 'the distance between the actual developmental level as determined through independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978: 38)'. Although the notion of the ZPD relates to learning and development, some researchers have extended this idea to SLA (e.g. Ellis, 2015; Lantolf, 2012). Thus, if the ZPD of Vygotsky is applied to the current study, working in the ZPD is like the classroom interaction between a learner and a teacher. This interaction starts when a learner's utterance contains an error, and it ends when a learner has corrected this

error with the assistance of the teacher through teachers' provision of CF. The ultimate goal is that this learner will be able to use the utterance correctly and independently from next time.

2.13.2 Mediation

The process that teachers help learners correct an error and enable learners to use the correct utterance independently from next time is termed 'mediation' in SCT. Lantolf and Thorne (2006: 79) defined mediation as

> 'the process through which human deploy culturally constructed artefacts, concepts, and activities to regulate – i.e. to gain voluntary control over and transform – the material world or their own and each other's social and mental activity'

In SCT, the form of mediation is called regulation which VanPatten and Williams (2015: 284) defined as 'the human ability to intentionally control our own social and/or psychological behaviour (i.e., self-regulation) or the behaviour of others (i.e., other-regulation), or to subject their behaviour to that of others (also other-regulation) or to cultural forms of mediation (i.e., object-regulation). The notion of regulation can be applied to learning, and it means that learning takes place from the dependence of a learner on other people or other objects to less dependence on them and finally having control over the use of it without the support of others (Gass et al., 2013). Lantolf et al. (2015) explained what the three forms of mediation, self-regulation, other-regulation, and object-regulation, mean in language learning. To Lantolf et al. (2015), self-regulation meant that learners have internalised 'external forms of mediation for execution or completion of a task (p. 209)'. Object-regulation can involve the use of a dictionary to look up a new word or the use of PowerPoint to make a presentation. Other-regulation was defined by Lantolf et al. (2015: 209) as follows:

> 'Other-regulation describes mediation by people and can include explicit or implicit feedback on grammatical form, corrective comments on writing assignments, or guidance from an expert or teacher'.

Ellis (2015: 214) also applied the concept of mediation in SLA. To him, 'mediation involves the use of "tools" that help learners to perform a task which they cannot

perform successfully with their existing linguistic resources.' Consequently, if mediation and regulation are applied in the current study, mediation refers to a process that a learner gradually gains control over the correct use of a linguistic form with the assistance of a teacher. The mediation begins when a teacher starts to treat a learner error by providing CF, and the mediation 'usually' ends when a learner produces a correct utterance (i.e. the achievement of self-regulation). 'Usually' is used here because of the social nature of classroom interaction. Before learners produce a correct utterance, teachers may either talk about another linguistic form irrelevant to the error, have phatic communication with learners, or move on to another topic. Additionally, learners do not always produce a response following teachers' CF. Due to the research focus of the current study, teachers' CF, the beginning point of a ZPD and the beginning point of the mediation are different. In the current study, a ZPD starts when a learner makes an error, but the mediation starts from the moment a teacher provides CF on this error. The ending point of the ZPD and mediation is usually the same that a learner has, to an extent, gained control of the use of the correct utterance (i.e. achieving self-regulation to an extent). During the mediation by teacher, other-regulation by peers (i.e. peer-correction) or object-regulation (e.g. the use of a coursebook CD) may play a role, too. This proposes that when a teacher treats a learner error, the process might involve multiple forms, e.g. other-regulation by the teacher or peers and object-regulation by the use of the blackboard.

2.13.3 Scaffolding

In SCT, there is another important notion related to CF, i.e. scaffolding (Bruner, 1978 in Fernández, Wegerif, Mercer, and Rojas-Drummond, 2001; Wood, Bruner, and Ross, 1976). Scaffolding refers to the supportive behaviour provided by teachers to learners in order for learners to acquire new knowledge or achieve a higher level of language production and perform it independently (Ellis, 2015; Hyland, 2009; Lightbown and Spada, 2013; Maybin, Mercer, and Stierer, 1992). Lantolf et al. (2015) clarified the difference between scaffolding and the ZPD below.

> 'Scaffolding…refers to any type of adult-child (expert-novice) assisted performance. Scaffolding, unlike the ZPD, is thought of in terms of the amount of assistance provided by the expert to the novice rather than in terms

> of the quality, and changes in the quality, of mediation that is negotiated between expert and novice (Stetsenko, 1999) (p. 214).'

Accordingly, to Lantolf et al. (2015), scaffolding is the 'quantity' of assistance provided by teachers, but the ZPD refers to the 'quality' of mediation that is negotiated between teachers and learners and also 'changes in the quality'. The following will further explain how the above notions of SCT can be applied to teachers' CF in SLA. These three examples make references to Ellis (2015: 21).

Example 1 (Day 1)

1	T	What did you eat last night?
2	L	I no eating dinner.
3	**T**	**You didn't eat dinner last night.**
4	L	Yeah, I didn't eat dinner.

In Day 1 (i.e. Example 1), the actual developmental level of this learner determined by the teacher was that this learner did not acquire the use of past tenses. The ZPD therefore began in line 2 when an error occurred. Mediation started in line 3 when the teacher corrected the error by reformulating the utterance of this learner. The form of mediation was therefore other-regulation because it was done by the teacher. Both the ZPD and mediation ended in line 4 because the learner was able to produce a correct response with the guidance of this teacher in line 3. In this example, scaffolding happened in one teacher turn, i.e. line 3.

Example 2 (Day 2)

1	T	What did you eat last night?
2	L	I no eating dinner.
3	**T**	**Last night?**
4	L	Yeah, I didn't eat dinner.

In Day 2, after the error in line 2, the teacher appears to assume that this time, this learner should be able to self-correct this error without providing the correct answer. Therefore, in line 3, the teacher's CF only involved a hint, 'last night'. In line 4, the learner successfully produced a correct response. In this example, the mediation was again through the form of other-regulation by the teacher. Like Example 1, the mediation in this example started in Line 3 when the teacher provided CF and ended in line 4 when the learner achieved self-regulation. The scaffolding also happened in

one teacher turn, i.e. line 3. Nonetheless, the ZPD in Example 1 and the ZPD in Example 2 are different. In Example 1, the assistance of the teacher involved the provision of a complete, correct utterance, but in Example 2, the guidance of the teacher only involved a clue. These two examples also propose that the same error can happen in different lessons.

Example 3 (Day 3)

1	T	What did you eat last night?
2	L	I didn't eat dinner.

In Day 3 (i.e. Example 3), after the teacher's question in line 1, the learner was able to give a correct answer in line 2 without any assistance. Thus, this learner seems to internalise this new knowledge and gain control over the use of this past tense independently.

If these three examples have been considered together, under the guidance of the teacher in Example 1 and Example 2, this learner successfully moves from his or her original language level (i.e. using the past tense incorrectly) to his or her potential developmental level (i.e. using the past tense correctly and independently) in Example 3. From the view of SCT, it is not the job of a learner to have an intake of this new knowledge. In SCT, a learner is able to acquire new knowledge or correct an error because of the guidance of a teacher. Accordingly, language learning happens within the interaction between a teacher and a learner (e.g. Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994 in Nassaji and Swain, 2000; Ellis, 2010). During this interaction, a teacher should firstly consider the ZPD of this individual learner and then provide CF which is suitable for this specific learner in order to assist this learner to acquire new knowledge or correct an error. This is in line with the claim of Lev Vygotsky (1978) that individual learners may have different dynamic development state. In other words, a ZPD varies from learner to learner. This idea relates to the pedagogical representation of the ZPD – Dynamic assessment (Lantolf, 2012).

2.13.4 Dynamic Assessment

Several decades ago, Luria (1961 in Poehner and Lantolf, 2005) discussed dynamic approaches to assessment and argued that a learner's ability is judged by his or her test result, his or her performance with others' assistance, and the extent to which he

or she could benefit from this assistance in completing both the same and different tasks or tests. More recently, Sternberg and Grigorenko (2002 in Lantolf and Poehner, 2011: 14) stated that dynamic assessment is a more accurate way of 'assessing an individual's potential for future development'. In 2008, Poehner argued that in dynamic assessment, instruction (i.e. supporting learner development) and assessment (i.e. understanding the abilities of learners) should not be seen as separate activities because they are indeed integrated activities (p.2 and p.5) (see also Lantolf and Poehner, 2010). Poehner (2008) further explained that

> 'the total integration of assessment and instruction can only be achieved when learner development becomes the goal of all educational activities, and this is the major contribution of Dynamic Assessment (p. 12)'

Like Davin's (2013) claim, assessment and instruction happen simultaneously in dynamic assessment. A one-size-fits-all approach or an unchanging formula does not suit the needs of all of the learners. Based on the notion of the ZPD, teachers adopt dynamic assessment to understand the abilities of learners by providing support to help with their development.

Section 2.12 and Section 2.13 above have explained that teachers can provide CF strategies when they correct a learner error. It is also important to understand the perspectives of teachers on what counts as CF and the intentions of teachers in class – whether they are correcting an error at a given moment or not. These then relate to another problematic issue in CF research – data coding.

2.14 Data Coding

Despite the fact that the six CF strategies identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997) have been massively adopted by existing CF studies, problematic issues with data coding have been identified. The causes of these problems are the dual functions of recasts, the vague definitions of these CF strategies, and coding criteria.

2.14.1 The Dual Functions of Recasts

One of the CF strategies, recasts, has dual functions because recasts can provide either positive input or CF. When researchers hear an error in class or when an error is recorded, they may code the subsequent teacher response as a recast. However,

this does not mean the teacher has heard this error, and nor does this mean the teacher offers a recast. This teacher may just provide a positive input. This shows the importance of considering the views of a teacher on what counts as CF and paying attention to the intentions of a teacher as to whether this teacher is providing CF at a given moment or not (see also Section 2.12).

2.14.2 The Vague Definitions of the Corrective Feedback Strategies

Another major reason that results in data coding problems is the vague definitions of some of the CF strategies identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Four kinds of these CF strategies, metalinguistic clues, elicitation, repetition, and clarification requests, all belong to output-pushing strategies. Hence, broadly speaking, all of these four CF strategies are defined as 'elicitation' because teachers try to prompt a correct utterance from learners. As to the definitions of these CF strategies offered by Lyster and Ranta (1997), both 'elicitation' and 'clarification requests' contain asking learners to reformulate what they have said. This proposes that researchers may code the same utterance as either an elicitation or a clarification request. This will then influence the results of CF studies which examine the frequency and effectiveness of different kinds of CF strategies. In addition to this, the definitions of an elicitation and the definition of a repetition are also unclear (see Example 4 below).

Example 4

1	L	the title of the story is girl had blood in her scalp	
2	T	blood?	**Elicitation**
3	L	bloot	
4	T	bullet bullet	**Recast**

The above example was taken from Loewen and Philp's (2006: 540) study, in which they coded 'blood' as 'elicitation'. In Lyster and Ranta's (1997) definition, this utterance, 'blood', can also be coded as a repetition because this teacher repeats the erroneous utterance of a learner. These findings imply that different researchers may interpret the same data differently and then code the data differently.

2.14.3 Coding Criteria

Another problematic issue of data coding in CF studies is Lyster and Ranta's (1997) coding criteria. When Lyster and Ranta (1997) coded their data, they merged

multiple CF strategies into single CF strategies. For example, Lyster and Ranta coded a combination of a recast and metalinguistic feedback as explicit correction. Their reason was that

> 'as soon as the teacher's provision of the correct form is somehow framed metalinguistically, then the characteristics of a recast, along with its condition of implicitness, no longer apply (Lyster and Ranta, 1997: 48-49)'.

This claim sounds reasonable; however, 'losing the function of implicitness' does not mean this CF strategy then becomes 'explicit correction' because their definition of explicit correction requires a teacher to provide a correct utterance 'explicitly'. Another example is that Lyster and Ranta (1997) categorised 'translation' (i.e. the responses of teachers in L2 to the utterances of learners in L1) as a recast. However, Panova and Lyster (2002) separated these two strategies. Their reason was that 'translation' is a response to the correct use of an L1 by learners, but 'recasts' are the responses to an L2 error. Accordingly, it can become problematic when Lyster and Ranta (1997) attempted to merge multiple CF strategies into single CF strategies or categorise CF strategies which perform different functions as the same CF strategies.

2.15 The Diversity of Corrective Feedback Strategies

In addition to the problem in data coding, another issue of CF traditions is the lack of attention to other possible CF strategies teachers adopt in class. Existing CF studies examine the frequency and effectiveness of CF strategies through a quantitative approach. Thus, these studies have heavily relied their data coding and data analysis upon the six CF strategies identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997). However, teachers may use other verbal CF strategies to correct learner errors (e.g. Seedhouse, 1997). The literature reviewed in Section 2.12 also demonstrates that teachers can use nonverbal behaviour such as body language to correct an error. In other words, the classic six verbal strategies which have been used in CF traditions for two decades may be insufficient to account for the diversity of CF strategies teachers adopt in class. As a result of this, the following sections will review literature on other possible verbal CF strategies and nonverbal CF strategies.

2.15.1 Other Verbal Corrective Feedback Strategies

This section will review other possible verbal CF strategies teachers may use to correct oral errors in class (see Table 2.2 below). These CF strategies make references to Banbrook and Skehan (1989), Büyükbay and Dabaghi (2010), Panova and Lyster (2002), Seedhouse (1997), Shirkhani and Tajeddin (2016), and Willis (1987).

Table 2.2 Other Verbal Corrective Feedback Strategies

Strategies	**Examples**
Translation – When a learner uses the L1, a teacher responds by translating the L1 into the L2 (Panova and Lyster, 2002).	T: All right, now, which place is near the water? L: **Non, j'ai pas fini.** (L1) T: **You haven't finished?** (Panova and Lyster, 2002: 583)
Accepting the incorrect forms and then supply the correct forms (Seedhouse, 1997)	L: When did Fred **joined** army? T: **That's right. Only when did Fred join the army?** (Willis, 1987: 154)
Inviting other learners to repair (Seedhouse, 1997)	L: **Don't** losing weight. T: OK. **(to the others) Can you help him?** (Banbrook and Skehan, 1989: 142)
Multiple Feedback – A combination of more than one type of feedback in one teacher turn (Büyükbay and Dabaghi, 2010; Shirkhani and Tajeddin, 2016)	L: Yes, **he** does. T: **Yes…? …Yes, she does.** (Shirkhani and Tajeddin, 2016: 193)

Multiple Feedback – More than one type of feedback in one episode (Shirkhani and Tajeddin, 2016)	L: **They received me an email.** T: **No, YOU received an email.** L: **I received? They received.** T: **They sent you. YOU received.** (Shirkhani and Tajeddin, 2016: 193)

In Table 2.2 above, Panova and Lyster (2002) presented another type of CF, translation, which is the responses of teachers in L2 to the correct utterances of learners in L1 (see Section 2.14.3 above). Seedhouse (1997) demonstrated that inviting other learners to correct errors can be a strategy teachers use to treat learner errors. Lastly, it is possible that teachers adopt more than one CF strategy in one teacher turn to correct an error or adopt more than one CF strategy in one CF episode when they treat reoccurred errors (e.g. Shirkhani and Tajeddin, 2016). The last example in Table 2.2 also relates to the notion of scaffolding of SCT (see Section 2.13.3 above).

2.15.2 Nonverbal Corrective Feedback Strategies

In addition to verbal CF strategies, teachers may use nonverbal CF strategies to correct the oral errors of learners in class (see Table 2.3 below). These nonverbal CF strategies make references to Davies (2006), Ellis (2009), Faraco and Kida (2008), Matsumoto and Dobs (2016), and Wang and Loewen (2016).

Table 2.3 Nonverbal Corrective Feedback Strategies

Researcher(s)	Strategies
Davies (2006)	**Purely Paralinguistic** – Body language **Paralinguistic FonF** – Combining body language with the CF strategies identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997)
Faraco and Kida (2008)	A teacher uses notably gesture (i.e. hand and body movement) and gaze to deal with a communication problem.
Ellis (2009)	**Paralinguistic Signal** – A gesture or facial expression

Wang and Loewen (2016)	**Nodding** **Head Shaking** **Pointing at an Artefact** **Pointing at a Person**
Matsumoto and Dobs (2016)	**Abstract Deictic Gestures**: A teacher points with a finger or other body parts to index abstract entities. **Metaphoric Gestures**: A teacher uses hands and arms to present images of abstract concepts.

Table 2.3 suggests that CF studies do not pay much attention to nonverbal CF strategies before the 2000s, and these nonverbal strategies described above do not give detailed information, either. For example, Davies (2006), Faraco and Kida (2008), and Ellis (2009) only used terms like body language and facial expression. Davies (2006) identified a combination of the classic verbal CF strategies and nonverbal CF strategies, but he did not mention the potential of adopting other verbal CF strategies (see Section 2.15.1 above).

Wang and Loewen (2016) and Matsumoto and Dobs (2016) started to differentiate between different kinds of gestures of teachers or give more details about the nonverbal behaviour of teachers in class. Wang and Loewen (2016) further pointed out the possibility of using multiple nonverbal CF in the same episode, but they did not state the potential of using multiple nonverbal CF strategies in one single teacher turn. The recent study on L2 grammar teaching and learning conducted by Matsumoto and Dobs (2016) considered social factors in their data analysis, so SCT was included in their framework. The above review proposes that the CF strategies teachers adopt in class are not as simple as or as straightforward as the six verbal CF strategies identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997) two decades ago.

2.16 Differences in the Instructional Focus

The last problematic issue identified in CF traditions relates to the issues discussed in Section 2.12 and Section 2.14 above and the theoretical assumption of CF – the instructional focus. The theoretical assumption of CF studies is based on focus-on-form instruction, in which communication is the focus of a class and teachers only

temporarily draw the attention of learners to linguistic forms when there is a communication breakdown. This theoretical assumption ignores the fact that not all of the L2 classrooms around the world adopt focus-on-form instruction. Like what has been illustrated in Section 2.12 above, around half of the teachers in Schulz's (2001) study disagreed with this statement, 'Teachers should not correct students' pronunciation or grammatical errors in class unless these errors interfere with comprehensibility (Schulz, 2001: 258)'. This finding proposes that teachers may correct an error even when the utterance does not interfere understanding. This also suggests that the instructional focus of a teacher may not always be on communication of meaning because a teacher may also focus the instruction on linguistic forms. The differences in the instructional focus also relates to the problematic issues discussed in Section 2.12 and Section 2.14. In a focus-on-forms classroom setting, it is common for teachers to drill learners to repeat a word, phrase, or sentence for several times. Without understanding the intention of teachers, it can be hard to tell whether any of these repeated utterances involve a corrective function at a given moment.

2.17 Building a More Nuanced and Integrated Research Approach

The review of literature on CF implies that existing CF studies are insufficient to capture what actually happens in classrooms of all kinds of contexts and settings. Teachers may focus their instruction on linguistic forms, account for errors and CF differently from researchers, and adopt multiple CF strategies or CF strategies other than the classic six CF strategies to correct an error. There are also reasons which influence the CF practices of teachers in class, e.g. considering individual learner differences or time restrictions. Additionally, learners may play a language deliberately, e.g. pronouncing an utterance incorrectly for fun. The same error or similar errors may occur for more than one time in the same lesson or in different lessons. Consequently, it is important to build a more nuanced and integrated research approach when researcher analyse the data. The person who takes charge of error treatment in class is a teacher. Thus, the analysis of the data may be meaningful to start with the classroom observation episodes that the teachers have specified as learner errors or their provision of CF. In order to capture the classroom interaction around CF, the framework for data analysis will contain a diversity of CF strategies,

including the six verbal CF strategies identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997), other verbal CF strategies, nonverbal CF strategies, and the use of objects as a CF technique. Additionally, an instruction setting which focuses mainly on linguistic forms will also be taken into consideration. Furthermore, this framework for data analysis will pay attention to the social dimensions of the classroom interaction, so this framework will involve the notions of SCT and the explanations of teachers as to their decision-making around CF, i.e. reasons that influence their decisions on when to correct errors in class and how to correct errors in class.

2.18 Summary

This chapter has firstly reviewed literature on CF and then discussed problematic issues in existing CF studies. In order to address these shortcomings and give a more thorough picture of the classroom interaction around CF, the data analysis of CF incidents of the current study will be based on the opinions of teachers in interviews, and a microanalysis of the classroom data will be carried out. The next chapter will describe the research design of this study and explain the approach to data analysis.

Chapter 3
Research Design

3.1 Overview

This is a qualitative multiple case study which investigates classroom interaction around teachers' corrective feedback on learners' oral errors in three elementary English classrooms in Taiwan. This chapter will firstly give an overview of the research design, including the research aims, the research questions, the approach to conduct this qualitative research (i.e. case study research), data-collection methods (i.e. classroom observations and interviews), and relevant ethical issues. The second part will illustrate the approach to data analysis, which attempts to address problematic issues in existing CF studies specified in Chapter 2. Examples of data analysis by a traditional CF model (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) will firstly be presented. However, due to the limitations of this traditional analytic model specified in Chapter 2, an inductive microanalysis of the classroom data will be implemented. A detailed description of data coding as well as examples of data analysis, data presentation, and transcription conventions will be provided. The last part summarises the criteria to consider when conducting this qualitative study (e.g. dependability).

3.2 Research Design

In order to ensure the feasibility of this study, the scope of the research has been reduced and the research design has been refined throughout all stages of the study (Blaxter, Hughes, and Tight, 2001; Parlett and Hamilton, 1972; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2009). For example, the research aims and research questions of this study have kept being polished from the time this study was designed to the moment the data were collected, transcribed, and analysed. The final research aims and research questions of this study are illustrated below.

3.2.1 Research Aims and Research Questions

This study aims to investigate teachers' CF in elementary English classrooms in Taiwan and focuses on the classroom interaction around teachers' CF. The reasons to

set out these aims relate to the motivations for conducting this study, i.e. a lack of CF studies in elementary EFL classrooms in Taiwan and the divergence between elementary English classrooms in Taiwan (see Section 1.2 and Section 1.3). In order to achieve these aims, the following research questions have been set up.

What is distinctive about the characteristics of the interaction around corrective feedback in three elementary EFL classrooms in Taiwan under investigation?

1) When do the teachers provide corrective feedback on their learners' oral English errors during a lesson?
2) How do the teachers provide corrective feedback on their learners' oral English errors during a lesson?

In order to elicit different kinds of answers through the above data-driven questions, unlike CF traditions which use a deductive approach to analyse the data, in this study, an inductive approach to data analysis have been carried out (see Section 3.10.5).

3.2.2 The Participants

The research data, including 14 lessons, 17 teacher interviews, and 10 learner interviews, were collected from three year-six classrooms located in three elementary schools in Taiwan from September 2013 to December 2013. The participants of this study were therefore the teachers and the learners of these three classrooms. These classrooms differed in the locations of the schools, the number of English lessons per week, the number of learners in class, the teaching experience of the teachers, or the academic backgrounds of the teachers (see Section 3.5.2).

3.2.3 The Research Procedure

In this study, the primary data-collection techniques were classroom observations and interviews. In each classroom, before the classroom observations, an audio-recorded and video-recorded teacher interview was carried out. Each interview lasted around 30 minutes. After this, all of the English lessons taught by the teachers were observed for two consecutive weeks, in total, 6 lessons in the first classrooms, 4 lessons in the second classroom, 4 lessons in the third classroom. Each lesson lasted for 40 minutes, and all of the observations were both audio-recorded and video-

recorded. During these two weeks, further interviews with the teachers and interviews with the learners were also carried out. The teacher interviews happened after each observed lesson. Each interview was audio-recorded and lasted for around 30-45 minutes. Among two of these three classrooms, 4 same-sex paired learner interviews were conducted. In the remaining classroom, one same-sex paired interview and one mixed-sex group interview were carried out because there were only 5 learners in that classroom, including 1 boy and 4 girls. Each learner interview lasted for around 45 minutes and was both audio-recorded and video-recorded.

3.3 An Interpretive Paradigm

This section will explain the philosophical position of this study which sometimes displays the features of more than one philosophical paradigm because the features of different paradigms may overlap (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The philosophical position which suits this study well is the 'interpretive paradigm' owing to the following reasons, making references to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011) and Creswell and Poth (2018). To begin with, this was a small-scale multiple case study conducted by an individual researcher, me. I observed the behaviour of the participants in class, took notes while observing, and conducted interviews with the participants based on the questions designed by myself. Besides, this study was situated in a natural setting. The behaviour of the participants was observed naturally without intending to interrupt the flow of the class or carry out any experimental studies. The data were non-statistical, i.e. classroom observation data and interview data. Additionally, I will try to understand, describe, explain, and critique examples of teachers' CF in class, their perspectives on CF, and their decision-making around CF. The data analysis will sometimes be based on thick descriptions, e.g. explaining the reason why the teachers corrected learner errors at a given moment. The discussion of the data will also contain whether the behaviour of the participants coincides with the findings of the existing CF studies, without intending to test a hypothesis (e.g. recasts happen most frequently in class).

3.4 A Qualitative Study

Some researchers claim that qualitative research and quantitative research explore the same world but record observations differently (Richards, 2005). Some argue that

all research data referring to people and objects are qualitative; then, researchers opt to convert these data into words (i.e. qualitative research) or numbers (i.e. quantitative research) (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The current study belongs to qualitative research for the following reasons. First of all, in line with the interpretive paradigm's notions, I intend to have an in-depth interpretation of the teachers' CF behaviour in class, as well as understanding reasons for their CF practices within this specific, natural setting (i.e. 3 elementary EFL classrooms in Taiwan) (Bogdan and Biklen, 2007; Creswell, 1998; Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Dörnyei, 2007; Holliday, 2007). Next, this study collected the data from a small number of classrooms (i.e. 3 classrooms) over a lengthy period of time (i.e. around 3.5 months) (Henn, Weinstein, and Foard, 2009; Richards, 2003). The multiple data-collection methods attempt to build rich viewpoints on teachers' CF behaviour in class (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994; Richards, 2003). Additionally, the research process and themes were emergent (Creswell and Poth, 2018; Punch, 2005), from following the foci of existing CF studies to exploring the distinctive features of classroom interaction around teachers' CF (see Section 3.2.1 above). Thus, the research design at all different stages had been refined as the study progressed (Henn et al., 2009). Lastly, the findings will predominantly be reported by verbal descriptions and explanations of teachers' CF behaviour and their thoughts on CF. Quantitative data (e.g. the frequency of the teachers' CF on specific types of errors) will play a subordinate role in order to assist with the analysis of interaction around teachers' CF in class (Bell, 2010; Henn et al., 2009; Richards, 2003).

3.5 Case Study Research

This study belongs to case study research for several reasons. As stated above, this study was situated in a natural, real-life context. Although I might have influenced the participants without intention, I was careful not to control their behaviour such as only providing the learners with specific types of CF (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995). Additionally, the research setting was bounded in space and time within a specific sociocultural context (i.e. 3 elementary EFL classrooms in Taiwan over a lengthy period) (Silverman, 2011). Another feature of case study research is to intensively investigates a specific, contemporary, and little understood phenomenon as fully as possible (i.e. teachers' CF in an elementary EFL context in Taiwan); the purpose is

to contribute to the in-depth understanding of the particularity and complexity of the investigated cases (Bromley, 1986; Brown and Rodgers, 2002; Duff, 1990; Punch, 1998; Richards and Schmidt, 2010; Shaughnessy and Zechmeister, 1985; Thorpe and Holt, 2008; Yin, 2009). After this, common features and unique features of the CF practices of the teachers among these three cases will be identified (Bell, 2010; Stake, 1995), so will the reasons for teachers' CF decisions at a given moment (Schramm, 1971 in Yin, 2009). This also relates to another feature of case study research, i.e. investigating descriptive questions (e.g. 'what') or exploring questions (e.g. 'how' or 'why') (Shavelson and Towne, 2002; Yin, 2012).

Additionally, case study research usually combines multiple data-collection methods. In this study, classroom observation data and interview data were audio-recorded or video-recorded (Dörnyei, 2007; Dobson, Hardy, Heyes, Humphreys, and Humphreys, 1981; Richards, 2003). The data collection and data analysis of case study research could also benefit from prior developed theoretical propositions (Yin, 2009). In this study, the data collection was primarily based on the traditional CF models in SLA (e.g. Lyster and Ranta, 1997), and the data analysis will contain a theoretical triangulation (e.g. considering CF in terms of the traditional analytic models, the perspectives of the teachers, other possible CF strategies, and the notions of SCT) (Ravitch and Carl, 2016). Next, this study aims to discover new understanding of teachers' CF practices in these three classrooms, which may cover different kinds of factors (e.g. contextual factors) (Yin, 2012). Lastly, case study research is one of the primary and typical approaches used in qualitative research (Creswell, 2009; Thorpe and Holt, 2008; Verschuren, 2003), and the philosophical position of this study, an interpretive paradigm, is well suited to case study research (Cohen et al., 2011).

After explaining why this study adopts case study research, the following will summarise the strengths of case study research. Firstly, case study data are strong in reality due to the natural setting (Adelman, Jenkins, and Kemmis, 1980). Next, case study research may embrace unanticipated events and can capture unique features which might not be noticed in large-scale data set such as surveys (Nisbet and Watt, 1984). Thus, the results of a case study might make a contribution to the world (Adelman et al., 1980), e.g. enabling teachers to understand more about their learners and solve problems relevant to their own context (Nunan, 1992b). Lastly, compared

to quantitative research's statistical data, the findings of a qualitative-cased case study are rather accessible and understandable (Adelman et al., 1980; Nisbet and Watt, 1984).

3.5.1 The Definition of a Case

The term, case, is interpreted differently in different case study research. In this study, one case referred to one year-six elementary English class in Taiwan. Thus, there were three cases in total. Two of them both consisted of one teacher and her learners, and the third case consisted of two teachers (i.e. one Taiwanese teacher and one American teacher) and their learners. This study belonged to a holistic, multiple-case study (Creswell, 1998; Stake, 1995; Yin, 2012). Whilst the research context of these cases was the same (i.e. Taiwan), elementary English education differed from city to city or even from school to school. The 3 teachers worked at 3 different schools and had different academic backgrounds. Secondly, one purpose of this study was to compare these 3 cases, which Campbell (1975 in Cohen et al., 2011) claimed had more merits than doubling the amount of a single case study's data. Consequently, each class of this study was regarded as a unique case within a unique context. Similarities and differences among these 3 cases will be identified and discussed (see Chapter 7).

3.5.2 The Selection of the Three Cases

More than one kind of sampling was used when these three cases were selected (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Too many variables might affect research results (Cohen et al., 2011), so the purposive sampling of a non-probability sample was used (Cohen et al., 2011). Firstly, only year-six classes will be studied, i.e. the last year of elementary school. Next, only lessons taught solely by the Taiwanese English teachers (Case 1 and Case 3) or co-caught by the Taiwanese English teacher and the native English-speaking teacher (Case 2) were observed (see Table 3.1 below). Lastly, only the Taiwanese English teachers and some of their learners were interviewed. After reducing the scope of the cases being studied, the volunteer sampling, which was used when gaining access was difficult (Cohen et al., 2011), was adopted to look for the teacher participants. These teachers often taught more than one year-six class, so they themselves decided which class to be investigated.

I also looked at the heterogeneity of these cases and selected 3 cases to be studied. To start with, these 3 cases were located in different areas of Taiwan, i.e. in an urban area, on an islet, and in a rural area. The number of learners in each case was different, i.e. 29, 5, and 21 learners respectively. These teachers also had different teaching experiences (i.e. from less than 3 years to nearly 20 years), different academic backgrounds (i.e. being educated in Taiwan, the US, or the UK) and belonged to different age brackets (i.e. around 40, in the late twenties, and in the mid-thirties). The last criterion related to the number of teachers in each case. Normally, there was only one teacher in one class, but in some schools, there are two teachers in one class. Therefore, I chose 2 cases consisting of individual teaching and 1 case consisting of team teaching (i.e. Case 2) (see Table 3.1 below).

Table 3.1 The Three Cases of this Study

	Case 1	Case 2	Case 3
Location of School	New Taipei City	Kinmen County	Changhua County
Name of Chinese-Speaking Teacher	Amy	Lily	Tina
Name of Native English-Speaking Teacher	X	Jack from the US	X
Number of Learners	29	21	5
Number of Lessons Observed	6	4 (2 taught by Lily and 2 taught by both teachers)	4
Number of Teacher Interviews	7	5	5
Number of Learner Interviews	4	2	4
Age of Teacher	Around 40	In the late twenties	In the mid-thirties
Teaching Experience	Nearly 20 years	Less than 3 years	More than 10 years
Academic Qualifications	A Bachelor in English in Taiwan	A Bachelor in Children's English Education in Taiwan	A Bachelor in Economics in Taiwan

	A Master's in TESOL in Taiwan	A Master's in TESOL in the US	A Master's in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) in the UK

In each case, I observed all of the English lessons taught by the Taiwanese English teachers solely and co-taught by the Taiwanese teacher and the American teacher for two consecutive weeks, i.e. six lessons in Case 1, four lessons in Case 2, and four lessons in Case 3 (see Table 3.1 above). In Case 2, the Taiwanese teacher, Lily, pointed out in the second teacher interview that this co-teaching was '*Kinmen County Government's policy* (INT2)', which cooperated with the Foundation for Scholarly Exchange (Fulbright Taiwan) (Fulbright Taiwan, 2018) and '*assigned each school one native English-speaking teacher* (INT2)'. When I conducted research there, it was the first year this policy had been adopted at Lily's school. Lily further explained in the fifth teacher interview that '*it was their school who decided how this native speaker would teach English in class* (INT5)'. In an orientation session organised by the Fulbright Taiwan, Lily's school was advised that co-teaching by a native English-speaking teacher and a Taiwanese teacher would be better.

3.6 Classroom Observations

As mentioned above, the primary data-collection methods were classroom observations and interviews (see Section 3.7 below). I observed 6 lessons in Case 1, 4 lessons in Case 2, and 4 lessons in Case 3. Each lesson lasted 40 minutes, and all of the lessons were both audio-recorded and video-recorded. The rationale for conducting classroom observations is as follows. Observation could gain live as well as direct classroom interaction between teachers and learners (Bailey, 1994; Cohen et al., 2011; Moyles, 2002; Simpson and Tuson, 2003). The data collected through observation is therefore more objective than the data gained from self-report accounts (Dörnyei, 2007). Classroom observation can also produce different kinds of data, e.g. systematic information or detailed descriptions of events. Thus, qualitative data such as descriptions of the classroom interaction around CF as well as quantitative data such as the frequency of correcting specific types of errors can both be generated from classroom observation (Simpson and Tuson, 2003). Another

reason to adopt classroom observation was that it could enhance and add to data gathered by teacher interviews and learner interviews (Simpson and Tuson, 2003). In this study, classroom observation data will sometimes be used to support what the teachers said in the interviews. I also checked whether teachers' behaviour observed in class coincided with what they claimed they had done in the interviews (Robson, 2002).

The observation procedure in these 3 cases was the same. I had contacted with the teachers since they agreed to participate in the study, but I had never met the learners before. In order to build up a rapport with the learners, in the first observed lesson, the teachers introduced me as a doctoral student in the UK to their learners. The reason was that 'if a researcher is seen as a teacher by a student, comments from the latter will be couched in terms "suitable" to a teacher's ears (Richards, Ross, and Seedhouse, 2012: 73)'. Thus, the teachers' introduction of me as a student may reduce the learners' anxiety, enable them to behave more naturally, and elicit more thoughts from the learners in the interviews.

In addition to developing the rapport with the participants, an observation scheme was also used to assist in classroom observations (see Table 3.2 below). An observation scheme could offer long-lasting and organised records of observed events (Simpson and Tuson, 2003), and researchers can choose from currently available observation schemes and then adapt them to suit their own research context (Dörnyei, 2007). In this study, the observation scheme had multiple functions. It primarily assisted with the follow-up interviews and cross-analysis of the classroom observation data and interview data. It also helped document complex classroom activities, focus on teachers' CF behaviour, reduce the time spent on data analysis, and compare the results of this study with the results of other CF studies (Cohen et al., 2011; Dörnyei, 2007; Simpson and Tuson, 2003). After reviewing observation schemes in the literature (Cohen et al., 2011; Guilloteaux and Dörnyei, 2008 in Dörnyei, 2007; Simpson and Tuson, 2003; Wragg, 1999), as well as considering my research focus (i.e. teachers' CF on learners' errors) and what information was needed to help with the teacher interviews, I designed my own observation scheme (see Table 3.2 below).

Table 3.2 The Observation Scheme of this Study

School	Taipei Elementary School (台北小學)		
Date	Fri., 04 Oct. 2013	Time	13.30 – 14.10
01	06.40 (delayed)	It's in the 'south' of the city.	
02	12.00	Where's your from?	

This observation scheme focused on teachers' CF behaviour in class, so I took field notes when the teachers appeared to correct their learners' errors. The first row in Table 3.2 stated the name of the school in both English and Chinese. The second row showed the observation's date and time. From the third row, the first column referred to what was happening in class in chronological sequence, and the second column recorded the time shown in the video recorder. 'Delayed' means delayed CF in which CF is not provided immediately after learners' errors (see Chapter 2). In the third column, possible teachers' CF or relevant learner errors were recorded. 'It's in the "south" of the city' was teacher's CF, and 'Where's your from?' was a learner error. Lastly, all of the observed lessons in this study were both audio-recorded and video-recorded, so the classroom observation data could be reviewed and examined over and over again (see Section 3.8).

3.7 Interviews

Interviewing is a data-collection method which involves interviewers' direct face-to-face engagement with interviewees (Atkins and Wallace, 2012). In qualitative research, this interaction between interviewers and interviewees has a specific purpose which Burgess (1984) termed 'conversation with a purpose'. An interview therefore takes advantage of adaptability. For example, interviewers can follow up the ideas of interviewees, and interviewees are not just respondents to pre-prepared questions but also informants who can contribute to the agenda and uncover issues relevant to the research topic (Atkins and Wallace, 2012; Bell with Waters, 2014). These advantages then relate to the co-constructed nature of interviews (Mann, 2016 and Walford, 2001). This concept regards the interview as a social encounter which involves at least two contributing participants, an interviewer and an interviewee, interchanging views, generating data, and constructing knowledge (Cohen et al., 2011 and Mann, 2016). Therefore, in this study, the interview data were not just a product by the teachers and the learners; they also invovled the joint construction of knowledge between me and the teachers and also between me and the learners (e.g.

Potter and Hepburn, 2005; Mann, 2011 and 2016). In each teacher interview, I asked for examples of the teacher's views and went back to ask for more details about previous points or questions. The teacher and I often exchanged ideas from our own perspectives, reflected on our own thoughts, and worked together to negotiate and generate knowledge (Amey and Brown, 2005; Choi and Richards, 2017; Bridle, Vrieling, Cardillo, Araya, and Hinojosa, 2013; Hamilton, Watson, Davies, and Hanley, 2009; Ritchie and Lewis, 2003; Strober, 2011). In each paired or triad learner interview, in addition to the above advantages, there were further opportunities for the learners to react to as well as comment on each other's thoughts (Ritchie and Lewis, 2003). In this study, I conducted 17 teacher interviews and 10 learner interviews. The following sections will explain the specific purposes of carrying out these interviews and the procedure of these interviews.

In this study, interviews were conducted to gain in-depth thoughts about teachers' CF from a small number of participants, i.e. 3 teachers and 21 learners (Bell, 2010; Dörnyei, 2007; Richards et al, 2012). I hoped the teachers could provide descriptions or interpretations of their CF behaviour in class and both the teachers and learners could elaborate on their thoughts on issues related to teachers' CF (Holliday, 2007; Richards, 2003). I also hoped to understand the causal relationships of the teachers' CF behaviour (e.g. Why did the teachers correct an error at a given moment?) (Yin, 2009), including their reasons for providing specific types of CF (e.g. time restrictions). Thus, I hoped these interviewees could be given space and become informants as mentioned above (Cohen et al., 2011; Yin, 2009); then, I could gather rich information from them (e.g. teachers' thoughts on CF or their descriptions of their own CF practices) (Stake, 1995; Talmy, 2010 in Richards et al., 2012; Yin, 2009). Interviews also allowed me to observe these teachers' and learners' facial expression or emotions, through which I could follow up what they had said or probe more deeply into their thoughts about their own CF or their teachers' CF (Bell, 2010; Roulston, 2010; Tuckman, 1972 in Cohen et al., 2011). On the basis of these pre-designed interview questions, I was able to draw the interviewees' attention to their own CF practices or their teachers' CF behaviour in class (Mann, 2011).

3.7.1 The Procedure for Teacher Interviews

The interview procedure in these 3 cases was the same, and different types of interviews were conducted at different stages of this study (See Sections 3.7.1.1-3.7.1.2 below) (Bell, 2010; Bogdan and Biklen, 2003). In each interview, some broad, exploratory questions which enabled the teachers to elaborate on their thoughts but still focused on my research topic had been designed prior to the data collection in order to achieve the research aims of this study (Cohen et al., 2011; Dörnyei, 2007). Meanwhile, I also asked fluid questions in the interviews (Rubin and Rubin, 1995; Yin, 2009). Thus, these teacher interviews were all semi-structured (Bell, 2010; Dörnyei, 2007), which included pre-designed questions as well as fluid questions.

3.7.1.1 The First Teacher Interview

In each case, the first teacher interview started with pre-designed, open-ended questions in order to further develop a rapport with the teacher (Patton, 1980; Yin, 2012). This was followed by in-depth semi-structured questions such as opening, content, check, probe, and follow-up questions (e.g. Creswell, 1998; Dörnyei, 2007; Henn et al., 2009; Richards, 2003). The purposes were to elicit more focused responses and give me insights into these teachers' thoughts on CF and their CF practices. A few examples of the interview questions are listed below.

1. How's everything? (i.e. to establish a rapport with the teachers)
2. I really thank you for being willing to participate in my research. Since I don't know much about you, if you don't mind, could you please tell me about your academic background and working experience? (i.e. a content question to develop a rapport with the teachers, as well as trying to answer the research questions where applicable)
3. Can you explain what you understand by error correction? (i.e. a probe question to answer the research questions)

As mentioned above, in all of the teacher interviews (see also Section 3.7.1.2 below), even though the aim was for me to get the teachers' thoughts on CF (e.g. what counted as CF) and her CF practices (e.g. reasons to correct specific types of errors at a given moment), these interviews inevitably invovled a joint construction between me and the teachers.

3.7.1.2 The Stimulated Recall Interviews

In each case, the rest of the teacher interviews were all conducted after each lesson I observed. This means that there was an interval between these interviews, which allowed me and the teacher to reflect on the previous interviews and the observed lessons. I was also able to adjust the interview questions to well suit this specific teacher in the later interviews (Polkinghorne, 2005). All of the interviews were in-depth, semi-structured stimulated recall interviews which prompted the teacher to describe her CF practices, recall her thoughts in class (e.g. their decision-making process regarding CF), and understand her thoughts in the interviews (Bloom, 1954; Calderhead, 1981a and 1981b; Gass and Mackey, 2000). As mentioned above, these interviews also involved the co-constructed interaction between me and the teachers. In an attempt to strengthen the dependability of the teachers' recalls (see Section 3.11), all of the interviews were conducted on the same date as the lessons I observed.

In each case, the procedure for each interview was the same. At the beginning or at the end of the interview, I usually asked the teacher to recall what happened in class from memory or asked her open-ended questions which might yield rich data (Dörnyei, 2007). Some examples questions are listed below.

1. In generally, what kind of error correction do you think you used most frequently in today's lesson? Why?
2. Is there anything else you'd like to talk about regarding this lesson? (Dörnyei, 2007)

After this, based on the notes I took on my observation scheme, the teacher and I watched relevant video clips (Gass and Mackey, 2000; Silverman, 2010). Before, during, or after watching these clips, I asked the teacher opening, check (e.g. clarifying questions), follow-up, or probe questions (Dörnyei, 2007 and Richards, 2003). The purpose was to elicit deeper responses regarding CF and have a clearer picture of this teacher's CF practices and thoughts on CF (Richards, 2003). A few examples of the questions are listed below.

1. How did you decide to correct this error in this way at that moment?
2. Why didn't you use another way to correct this error, then?

I hoped to further understand the teacher's perspectives on CF as well as her CF behaviour in class. Thus, in each case, the last stimulated recall interview included an activity where I asked the teacher to watch a 2.5-minute Internet video (Yu-Tsai Elementary School, 2010) (see Figure 3.1 below), find out how the teacher in the video corrected errors, and compare the correction strategies provided by the teacher in the video with her own CF strategies in class. During this discussion, I also introduced a few classic CF strategies (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). I asked the teacher whether she thought she had used any of them in class as well as her views about these CF strategies.

Figure 3.1 Yu-Tsai Elementary School (2010)

3.7.2 The Procedure for Learner Interviews

Whilst the focus of this study was on teachers, I was also interested in understanding the perceptions of the learners towards the CF of their teachers. One of the reasons for conducting learner interviews was that the awareness of language learning and language teaching of children appears to begin very early (see Djigunović and Lopriore, 2011 in Muñoz, 2014). The beliefs of children can be similar to the beliefs of adults (Kolb, 2007). Additionally, children can provide unique views and valuable opinions, which may be a powerful challenge to the viewpoints of adults (Kuchah and Pinter, 2012). I carried out four same-sex paired learner interviews in Case 1 and Case 3. In Case 2, there were only 5 learners; for ethical concerns, I conducted 1 same-sex paired interview and 1 mixed-sex interview consisting of 2 girls and 1 boy. The reason to primarily conduct single-sex interviews was to avoid the effect caused by gender differences (Hayes, 2000; Lewis, 1992). The reason for having more than

one learner in an interview was that some children feel more comfortable when being interviewed together (Kuchah and Pinter, 2012; Lamb, 2003; Pinter, 2011). Besides, group interviews with elementary-aged children are feasible and can help reveal agreed views, generate richer responses, and increase the dependability of the responses of learners (Kuchah and Pinter, 2012; Lewis, 1992).

Thus, in total, I interviewed 8 learners in Case 1, 5 learners in Case 2, and 8 learners in Case 3. The selection of these learners was based on the following criteria. In an attempt to elicit more responses from the learners, the first criterion was that the learners were able to both express themselves in class and freely chat with their classmates at break (Kuchah and Pinter, 2012). Secondly, friendship groups were used (Spencer and Flin, 1990), so the learners could comfortably express different opinions in the interviews and trust other interviewees to reach a compromise (Thacker, 1990: 71). Since I did not know the learners before I conducted the research, the learners being interviewed were recommended by their English teacher or the teacher who taught them most of the subjects.

All of the interviews were semi-structured, including prepared questions (Bell, 2010) and pair work (see Sections 3.7.2.1-3.7.2.3 below). Pair work was adopted to gather various kinds of responses and avoid receiving too consensual opinions from the interviewees (Lewis, 1992). In the interviews, I frequently asked them questions like 'How about you?', 'Do you think the same as him/her?', and 'Is that what you (both) think?'. The purpose was to help the learners engage in the interviews and also check whether they had different viewpoints or reached an agreement (Laws, Harper, and Marcus, 2003). As mentioned earlier, these learner interviews also inevitably involved the co-constructed interaction between me and the learners as well as between or among the learners themselves.

3.7.2.1 Part One of the Interview

There were three parts in each interview. In Part One, I interviewed the learners together. I firstly asked a few questions to build up a rapport with them. Then, I moved to my research focus and asked them questions about their teachers' CF practices. This helped me understand their thoughts on their teachers' CF (Bell, 2010), as well as building up a fuller picture of the normal classroom interaction

around CF between the learners and the teachers. Some examples of the interview questions are listed below.

1. How's everything?
2. Since I don't know much about you, can you please tell me about your English background? For example, when did you start learning English?
3. What does your teacher usually do after you answer a question or speak some English?
4. Does your teacher correct your error?
   (If the answer is a 'yes',)
   - How do you know it?
   - How does she correct your error?
   - Why does she correct your error?

3.7.2.2 Part Two of the Interview

In Part Two, I designed an activity to further gather information from the learners about their teachers' CF practices. In this activity, the learners were given a list of sentences which included one error and the correct answer (e.g. 'yes, she work (X) here. (Correct Answer: works)'). The learners either acted as a teacher to correct this error or acted as a learner and responded to the corrections. After this activity, I asked them why they had given those specific CF strategies and if their teachers had used any of them in class. The purpose was again to understand more about their teachers' CF behaviour in class. A few examples of these questions are shown below.

1. Why did you decide to correct the error in this way?
   - Do you think your teacher uses the same way to correct your error? Why (not)?

3.7.2.3 Part Three of the Interview

I hoped to elicit more responses from the learners, enabling me to build a fuller picture of the teachers' CF behaviour in class. Therefore, the activity in Part 3 was the same as the one illustrated in Section 3.7.1.2. The learners watched the same Internet video as their teachers (Yu-Tsai Elementary School, 2010) (see Figure 3.1 above), identified the error corrections provided by the teacher in the video, and

compared these corrections with their own teachers' CF strategies. After this, like the teacher interviews, I also provided examples of a few classic CF strategies (Lyster and Ranta, 1997) and asked the learners if their teachers had used any of them in class or not. A few examples of the questions are listed below.

1. How does the teacher in the video correct this error?
   - Does your teacher use the same way to correct your error?
2. I will show you one error correction method. I want you to tell me whether your teacher uses the same way to correct your error or not.

3.8 Audio-Recordings and Video-Recordings

I hoped to transcribe the complete classroom observation and interview data set (see Section 3.10.2); recording was therefore an absolute necessity (Bell, 2010). The analysis of the classroom observation data included both the teachers' and the learners' verbal behaviour and the teachers' nonverbal behaviour. The stimulated recall interviews involved watching the video clips of the lessons I observed. It was therefore essential to both audio-record and video-record the lessons, so these video-recordings could be used in the stimulated recall interviews. When I transcribed the data and analysed the data, I could also listen to the audio-recordings or watch the video-recordings repeatedly (Bell, 2010 and Cohen et al., 2011). The interview data had also been fully transcribed, and I focused on the teachers' and the learners' verbal behaviour. Thus, these interviews needed to be audio-recorded or video-recorded. Besides, when the interviews were recorded, I could entirely focus on the discussion with the teachers and the learners.

3.9 Ethical Issues

Prior to researching into each case, I obtained oral consent from all of the teachers and their head teachers. Written consent forms were also designed for all the head teachers, teacher participants, and the parents of the learners (Cohen et al., 2011). The classroom observations did not start until all of the participants agreed. The head teachers, teacher participants, and the parents of the learners were informed about my academic background, research objectives, and data collection methods (Cohen et al., 2011; Richards, 2003). In an attempt to observe the classroom behaviour of the

teachers and their learners naturally, instead of telling them directly I would investigate teachers' CF, I told them my objective was to investigate how teachers facilitated learners learning English.

In order to build up a truthful and open relationship with the participants (BAAL, 2016), the teachers and learners had been regarded as great helpers who deserved to be treated with a high level of respect. The participants were also reassured that they had the right to withdraw from my study at any time or participate in some parts of the research only (Bell, 2010; IMP, 2013; IOP, 2013). I also notified the teachers and the parents of the learners that when written and oral reports of this study were presented, personal details that might identify them or their children would be kept confidential, and the names of the participants would remain anonymous (Bailey, 1994; Bell, 2010; BERA, 2011). In order to appreciate the participants, I told them the benefits of participating in my research (Bell, 1991; Cohen et al., 2011). For example, the teachers could receive a copy of the recorded lessons and interviews. All of the participants could receive a copy of my thesis.

Other ethical considerations relate to my status as a researcher. As mentioned earlier, I might have influenced the classroom behaviour of my participants without intention. However, I was careful not to control their classroom behaviour (e.g. asking the teachers to provide a specific type of CF). Due to the co-constructed nature of the interviews specified in Section 3.7 above, I might have also influenced the thoughts of the teachers in the interviews without intention. Nonetheless, I did not seem to influence their own classifications of what counted as errors and CF. The teachers still showed disagreement when they did not think what I noted down on the observation scheme was an error or CF. Thus, trustworthiness of the selection of the CF episodes for analysis was still achieved (see Section 3.10.3 and Section 3.11).

3.10 The Approaches to Data Analysis

This section will detail the approaches to data analysis, including the explanation of the research data, data transcription, criterion for selection CF episodes for analysis, problematic issues in the traditional analytic framework, examples of the inductive

approach to analysis of the data, examples of data presentation, and transcription conventions.

3.10.1 Data

There were three kinds of primary data and one kind of secondary data in this study. The primary data were the classroom observation data (14 lessons; 40 minutes each), the teacher interview data (17 interviews; around 30-45 minutes each), and the learner interview data (10 interviews; around 45 minutes each). The secondary data were the field notes I took when I observed the lessons.

3.10.2 Transcription

After I finished the data collection, I started to transcribe the data. In each case, all of the classroom observation data, teacher interview data, and learner interview data had been fully transcribed. The main purpose was to gain an overall picture of each case and consider the data as a whole (Atkins and Wallace, 2012). The full data transcription could also avoid the issue of cherry-picking (i.e. only using selected findings to support my preferred conclusion) (Suter, 2012) and resolve the problem of only looking for data related to teachers' CF (Atkins and Wallace, 2012). When I transcribed the data, I paid attention to what the teachers and learners said in class and in the interviews, as well as how these utterances were said (Gee, 1999; Gibson, 2010). I listened to the audio-recordings and transcribed all of the data as detailed as and as precise as possible, including noting down the forceful utterances, the elongated tones, and the overlapped utterances between the teachers and their learners or among learners (see Section 3.10.6). The reason was that altering one's voice could also be a way of correcting errors (see Chapters 4-6). Meanwhile, when there were inaudible utterances or I was unable to identify the person who spoke, I watched the video-recordings to help with the transcription. The software, NVivo, was also used when I transcribed the data because I could slow down the playback speed, as well as exporting transcripts in a Word document. An example of the raw data taken from the 4th lesson I observed in Case 3 is shown in Table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3 An Example of the Raw Data

178	/ŋ (拉長音) kə/	Tina

179	/ŋ (拉長音) kə/k/ (UTO)	Ls
180	對 (USO)	Tina
181	/ŋ (拉長音) kə/k/ (UTO)	Ls
182	所以念-SINK	Tina
183	SEAN/SEAN../kə/k/ (UTO)	Ls
184	(6.20) 好-所以-我們來念-先聽我念一遍-A SEA..KY MONKEY IS PACKING A BAY (拉長上揚語調怪) IN (THE? 樂?) SEAN-好-來念-來-聽-好-等一下-等一下-好-我念完-妳再念 (同時有學生講話 - 很吵) (USO) (UUSO)	Tina

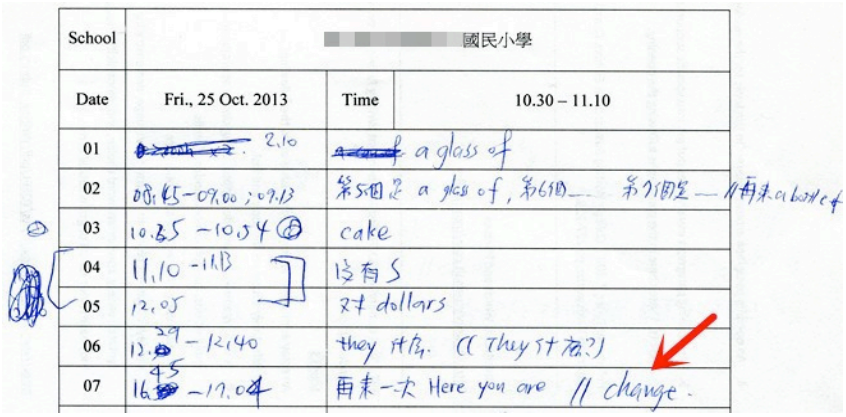
In the above classroom observation extract, the numbers in Column One refer to the utterances of the teacher and the utterances of the learners in chronological order. Column Two shows what utterances were said and how they were said. This example contains two languages: English and Chinese. Words in brackets are either my own notes or uncertain utterances with a question mark (e.g. '(THE? 樂?)' in line 184). Column Three indicates the person or people who was or were speaking at that time. 'Tina' is the pseudonym of the teacher, 'Ls' means more than one learner, and 'L' means an unidentified, individual learner.

3.10.3 Coding

In this study, the stimulated recall interviews were based on the handwritten notes of my observation scheme (see Figure 3.2 below), so these notes referred to errors and corrections from my point of view. Nevertheless, in the interviews, the teachers did not always agree with me about what counted as errors or what counted as error corrections. This finding is in line with the problematic issues discussed in Section 2.10 and Section 2.11. Additionally, other issues also emerged when I tried to analyse the data by the framework of existing CF studies (see Section 3.10.4 below). Accordingly, in this study, the criterion for selecting the interactional CF episodes for analysis was based on the perspectives of the teachers. Only an episode the teachers identified as one of the learner errors or error corrections in the stimulated recall interviews have been analysed. In order to organise the data for analysis, I read through the field notes on my observation scheme, classroom observation data,

teacher interview data, and learner interview data carefully and followed the same procedure in each case (Creswell and Poth, 2018; Mertler, 2016; Ravitch and Carl, 2016). I will explain this procedure by taking 'change' for example (see the red arrow in Figure 3.2 below).

Figure 3.2 The Coding Procedure: The Observation Scheme



When I read my field notes, the word 'change' was noted down on my observation scheme. The teacher, Tina, asked her learners to read aloud a sentence 'Here you are and here's your change' again (i.e. Tina said 'again' in Chinese), after which she repeated the word 'change'. In my view, Tina was correcting her learners at that given moment. Thus, I looked at my teacher interview data and found my discussion with Tina about 'change' (see Table 3.4 below). In line 441, I shared my view that Tina was correcting an error in 'change'. Tina agreed with me in line 442 and further explained that she corrected that learner 'because he had already pronounced it incorrectly'.

Table 3.4 The Coding Procedure: The Teacher Interview Data

441	so about the 'change', your correction method was to tell him the correct answer directly.	R
442	Hmm, yes, because he had already pronounced it incorrectly.	Tina

Because Tina agreed that she was correcting her learner then, I found the corresponding classroom observation data (Table 3.5 below) (see Section 3.10.6 for the transcription conventions). I also checked my learner interview data and the rest

of the teacher interview data to see whether we had also discussed 'change'. Lastly, I reviewed the video-recordings of this classroom observation data to note down the nonverbal behaviour of the teacher.

Table 3.5 The Coding Procedure: The Classroom Observation Data

218	Tina	Here's		
219	Ls	And	here	your /ˈtʃeɪn(dʒ?)/.
	L(un)	/æn/		
	L(un)		here's	
220	Tina			your (.) change.
221	L(un)	Your /ˈtʃeɪntʃ/		
222	Tina	/ˈtʃeɪn..dʒ/		
223	Ls	/ˈtʃeɪn..dʒ/		

A CF episode started from the source of the error or a few turns before the error occurred, and this CF episode ended where the learners successfully corrected the error or the teacher moved the class on. However, the actual classroom interaction was complex. For example, a teacher provided both immediate CF when an error occurred and delayed CF on the same error after an activity finished. The learners interrupted the teacher's CF and started to talk about another topic. The same or similar kinds of error recurred in different parts of a lesson or happened in multiple lessons. Phatic communication happened between the teacher and one or multiple learners as well as between or among the learners. The teacher needed to spend time on classroom management. Accordingly, most of the classroom data presented in Chapters 4-6 will be a CF extract from a complete CF episode. These CF extracts will focus on the interaction around teachers' CF. Each extract will be introduced by a description of what was happening in class at that time, so readers could understand the context (e.g. Wolcott, 1994).

3.10.4 Initial Approach to Data Analysis and Its Problematic Issues

Initially, I intended to follow the foci of CF studies and examined the frequency and effectiveness of teachers' CF in class (e.g. Lyster and Ranta, 1997). However, problematic issues had been discovered from the time I collected the data in Taiwan

to the moment I analysed the data. Firstly, in order to understand the decision-making around CF of these teachers, in the interviews, I often asked the teachers why they used a specific CF strategy to correct an error. Problematic issues then emerged. In Case 3, after I asked Tina why she directly said the correct pronunciation following a spelling error in 'donkey', she replied, 'my intuition at that given moment'. Tina gave the same answer in another interview that 'in fact, I feel many of the corrections are intuitive. I didn't think about them in advance…In fact, sometimes I also don't know why I did this'. These findings suggest that the CF strategies of Tina were sometimes based on her own feelings, so her use of these CF strategies did not have a direct relationship with the effectiveness of the CF strategies towards SLA. In Case 1, I asked the teacher, Amy, in the interview why she used different CF strategies to correct errors which occurred when her learners recited the texts of the coursebook (see Chapter 4). Amy replied, 'I didn't notice this at that given moment, but I personally feel that I want to change a method. Maybe I don't want to always use the same way to correct them'. Thus, the reason Amy used specific CF strategies did not relate to the language acquisition of the learners or consider the effectiveness of these CF strategies towards SLA. Additionally, in line with the literature (see Section 2.12), time limitation was also a factor which influenced the CF strategies of the teachers of this study. For example, time limitation was sometimes a reason why Amy used a specific CF strategy to correct an error. It was also a reason why Lily and Tina did not provide CF when the same kind of error reoccurred in class and why Tina did not provide a detailed explanation when she corrected an error. All of these findings propose that different factors would have had an influence on the results of this study if I had followed the analytic framework of existing CF studies.

Other problematic issues also emerged when I analysed the data according to the framework of CF traditions. An example taken from Case 2 of this study is shown below. At the beginning of the 3rd lesson I observed, the teacher, Lily, asked the learners to read aloud a dialogue they had learnt in the previous lesson (see Table 3.6 below). After this, Lily asked the learners of the pronunciation of 'should' (see Extract 3.1 below). The transcription conventions of an extract are shown in Section 3.10.6 below. For example, 'CO3' in Extract 3.1 below means the data were taken from the 3rd lesson I observed. Spoken English is shown in colour blue. The words in

a square bracket are overlapped utterances. The word plus a question mark in a round bracket is an uncertain utterance.

Table 3.6 The 'Patient and Doctor Practice' Dialogue

Patient: Hello, doctor. Doctor: Hello, patient. What's wrong with you? Patient: I don't feel good. I have a stomachache. Doctor: How long have you had a stomachache? Patient: I have had stomachache for 3 days. Doctor: You should take medicine for 1 week. Patient: Thank you, doctor. Doctor: You're welcome.

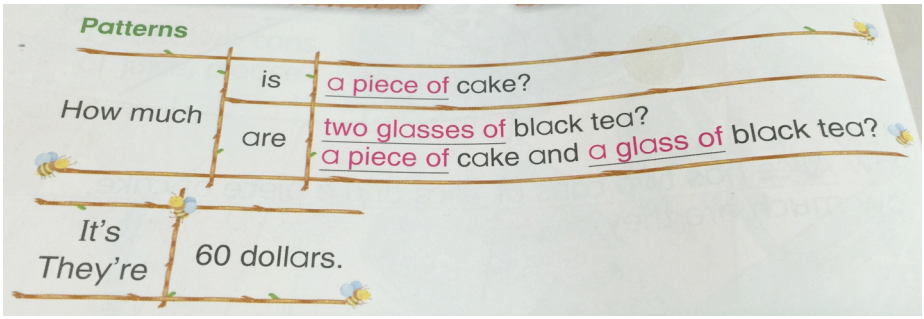
Extract 3.1 (CO3)

32	Lily	Ok, what's this?
33	L(un)	you
34	L(un)	you../ʃʊr/
35	Lily	should
36	Ls	should
	L(un)	/ʃʊ/
37	Jack	should
38	Lily	/ʊ../
39	Ls	/ʊ../
40	Lily	/ʃʊ/
41	Jack	should
42	Ls	/ʃʊ/
43	Lily	should
44	Jack	should
45	Ls	should
	L(un)	/ʃʊ/
46	Lily	should
47	Jack	should
48	Ls	should
	L(un)	/ʃɜ:/
49	Lily	ok (↑)

In the above extract, the learner in line 34 makes a phonological error in 'should' (/ʃʊr/), after which Lily reformulates the correct utterance in line 35 (should). According to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) CF categories, Lily's strategy in line 35 is termed 'recasts'. When an unidentified learner makes another phonological error in 'should' in line 45 (/ʃʊ/), according to Lyter and Ranta's (1997) definition, Lily again provides CF through a recast in line 46. However, when I discussed this extract with Lily, I asked her whether her behaviour above was to provide CF or just to let the learners practise the pronunciation of 'should'. Lily replied, 'practise'. The response of Lily indicates that the analytic framework of CF traditions does not suit the analysis of the data of this study.

Another problematic issue emerged when I analysed the data of Case 3, and an example is shown in Extract 3.2 below. The teacher, Tina, was teaching the sentence patterns of the coursebook (see Figure 3.3), during which she corrected a grammatical error, 'one dollars'. The transcription conventions are shown in Section 3.10.6 below. For example, 'CO2' means the data were taken from the 2nd lesson I observed. Spoken Chinese is italicised. The words in round brackets are my own descriptions or notes. A dot in a round bracket indicates a short, untimed pause, and two dots represent elongated sounds.

Figure 3.3 The Sentence Patterns of Unit 3 (Tina's Class)



Extract 3.2 (CO2)

144 Tina *If* ((there's)) *only one dollar, you say,* 'It's one dollar'.

145 Ls It's one dollar.
Ls /i:/
L4 **It's one dollars.**

146 Tina *No* 's'. It's one (.) dollar
147 Ls one..dollar

148 Tina *Right.*

In this extract, line 145 involved a grammatical error, 'one dollars' made by the learner, L4. After this, according to the traditional analytic framework, Tina provided immediate CF in line 146 by explicit correction, which clearly specified that there was an error (No 's'), as well as providing the correct utterance (It's one-dollar). Then, no error was heard in line 147.

The traditional CF model merged multiple CF moves of teachers into single CF strategies and only focused on verbal CF behaviour of teachers (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). Nonetheless, in this study, the nonverbal behaviour of these three teachers was noticeable, so were the multiple verbal CF moves of these teachers and their use of objects such as coursebooks and posters to assist with their CF. For these reasons, I have once again found that this traditional, deductive approach to data analysis is inadequate to capture what actually happens in the classrooms I observed. Consequently, I have refined the approach to data analysis of this study.

3.10.5 Refined Approach to Data Analysis

The data coding of this study is different from the coding of existing CF studies because I have considered the perspectives of teachers (see Section 3.10.3 above). The data presentation and the approach to data analysis will also be different from those of CF traditions because the data presentation and the data analysis of this study will include the nonverbal behaviour of the teachers and the objects used to assist the teachers' CF. Additionally, I will carry out a line-by-line or sometimes word-by-word, inductive analysis of the CF practices of the teachers. Meanwhile, I will also relate the CF practices of these teachers to the existing literature. Extract 3.3 below gives an example of this microanalysis.

Extract 3.3 (CO2)
((A poster of the above sentence patterns was attached to the blackboard by Tina. Tina pointed at the text of the poster when her learners were reading it.))

Although there was no evidence that this poster was used to assist Tina's CF in this extract, this contextual information has suggested that Tina's nonverbal behaviour of pointing at a poster might either serve as a CF strategy or assist in her verbal CF strategy on another occasion.

144	Tina	*If* ((there's)) *only one dollar, you say,* 'It's one dollar'. ((her finger gesturing number '*1*'))
145	Ls	It's one dollar.
	Ls	/i:/
	L4	**It's one dollars.**

A grammatical error was spotted in line 145. When I discussed this extract with Tina in the 3rd teacher interview, she claimed that '*learners might not know that when there's only "*one*", a "*dollar*" doesn't need to add an "*s*"* (INT3)'. Thus, the actual English level of some learners determined by Tina was that they did not know plurality was not needed here. Tina's idea seems to influence her utterances in line 146 and line 148 below because she decided to correct the error immediately.

146	Tina	((turning her head to look at L4)) *No* 's'. ((looking at L4 plus gesturing a 'stop' sign with a palm))
		It's one (.) dollar ((while nodding her head, her finger pointing out number '*1*', and her head moving from looking at L4 towards the direction of looking at the poster again – but not yet)).
147	Ls	one..dollar

Multiple verbal CF moves and multiple nonverbal CF moves appear to take place here. Tina's first CF move was nonverbal, i.e. turning her head to gaze at L4 who made the error. While Tina was still looking at L4, she simultaneously provided an explicit verbal correction (No 's') as well as a nonverbal gesture (i.e. a 'stop' sign with a palm). After this, unlike Lyster and Ranta's (1997) classifications (see the analysis of Extract 3.1 above), Tina seems to give multiple verbal CF moves and various nonverbal CF moves. Her verbal CF moves seem to involve elicitation by strategically pausing before the error (It's one (.)) as well as a recast (dollar). Meanwhile, Tina also nodded her head and used her finger to point out Number 1.

Tina's multiple nonverbal CF moves connected with her multiple verbal CF moves here as well as her learners' overlapped utterances in line 147 below because they joined and co-constructed with Tina to produce a successful utterance (one..dollar).

Tina's pause between 'one' and 'dollar' in line 146 appears to have influenced her learners' utterances because there was also a noticeable, short pause between 'one' and 'dollar' in line 147. Thus, with Tina's assistance in line 146 as well as the constructed interaction between Tina and her learners, no error was heard in line 147.

148 Tina ((Gesturing a 'stop' sign with her palm and her face looking serious and staring at another side of the classroom before looking at the poster – because she was listening to the learners' response)) *Right.*

Although the grammatical error had been repaired in line 147, Tina's CF behaviour might actually end in line 148 where Tina gestured a 'stop' sign with her palm. The learners seem to have been influenced by Tina's nonverbal behaviour because they stopped their utterances in line 147 almost at the same time as Tina's nonverbal behaviour happened. Thus, Tina's nonverbal moves in line 148 appear to prevent her learners from adding an erroneous 's' so was served as a CF strategy.

If Extract 3.3 has been considered as a whole, Tina's CF practices actually occurred in focus-on-forms instruction (Long, 1991) because the purpose of Tina's behaviour was to enable the learner who made an error in line 145 to correctly use the grammatical form, 'one dollar'. The outcome shows this error had been resolved through Tina's provision of multiple verbal CF moves and multiple nonverbal CF moves, as well as her co-construction of interaction with the learners. Accordingly, Tina had successfully assisted L4 in moving from his original independent level (i.e. 'one dollars') to a higher level of language production (i.e. 'one dollar') (e.g. Ellis, 2015; Maybin, Mercer, and Stierer, 1992).

The above shows an example of how the CF extracts will be analysed in this study. In order to capture what actually happened in the lessons I observed, this inductive microanalysis might involve a detailed line-by-line or even word-by-word analysis of the teachers' CF practices. I might bring the teacher interview data, learner interview

data, other classroom observation data, and contextual information to support the analysis. This microanalysis will also connect the findings of the current study with the existing literature (e.g. considering CF in terms of the traditional models of CF research, the perspectives of the teachers, other possible CF strategies, and the notions of SCT). I will also consider the teachers' views on their provision of CF (e.g. factors or reasons that influenced their CF practices). The timing of giving CF as well as the teachers' use of verbal CF strategies or nonverbal CF strategies will also be specified. Lastly, the instructional focus, either paying attention to linguistic forms or focusing on meaningful communication, will also be considered. Consequently, in this study, the approach to data analysis does not rely on the traditional CF's analytic model (see the analysis of Extract 3.1 above). This inductive microanalysis of the data draws attention to the perspectives of teachers, considers the notions of SCT, and is open to different kinds of CF strategies teachers used in class.

3.10.6 Data Presentation and Transcription Conventions

There are 3 cases in this study, and the findings will be presented on a case-by-case basis, i.e. Cases 1-3 in Chapters 4-6 respectively (Cohen et al., 2011). In each case, learner errors might recur in the same lesson or in different lessons I observed. Thus, the errors and teachers' corrections could happen in different parts of the lessons or last for several minutes in total. These errors and corrections might therefore be discussed in different interviews, and the discussion could last for several minutes. Consequently, the terms 'extracts', 'quotes', and 'examples' will be used when I present the findings related to the answers to my research questions, i.e. when the teachers corrected their learners' oral errors and how they corrected these errors. In each case, the presentation of the classroom observation data and interview data will follow the transcription conventions described in Table 3.7 below (e.g. Dressler and Kreuz, 2000; Markee, 2015; Roberts, 2003).

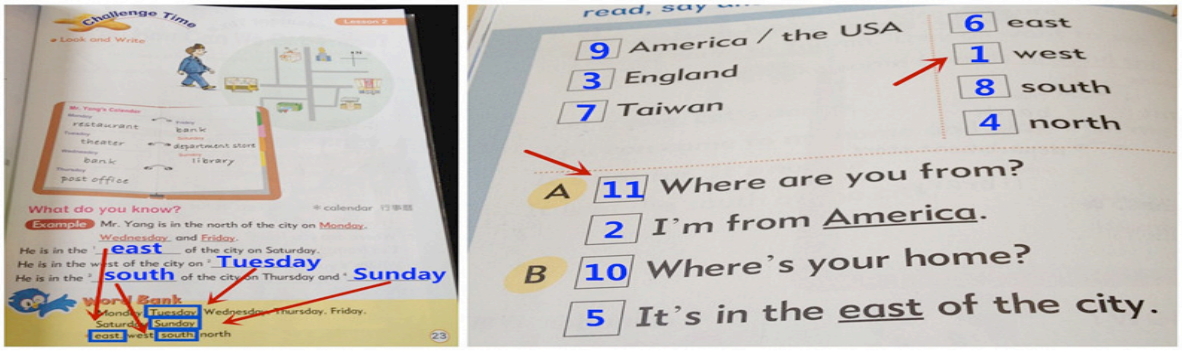
Table 3.7 The Transcription Conventions of the Current Study

Number (e.g. 110 and 111)	Classroom interactions presented in a chronological sequence
CO plus a number (e.g. CO1)	Lessons observed in a chronological sequence
INT plus a number (e.g. INT1)	Teacher interviews in a chronological sequence
INL plus a number (e.g. INL1)	Learner interviews in a chronological sequence
word	Chinese utterances

word ((Taiwanese))	Taiwanese utterances
word	English utterances
..	An elongated tone
(.)	A short, untimed pause
?	A question
(↑)	A rising, surprising, or doubtful intonation
(↓)	A falling intonation
((word))	The nonverbal behaviour of the teachers and learners or my own descriptions or notes
R	The researcher myself
Amy, Lily, Jack, and Tina	The anonymous names of the teachers
L(un)	One unidentified learner
L1, L2, etc.	One specific learner
L(D), L(M), etc.	The abbreviation of the learners' anonymous names in Lily's class
Ls	More than one learner
〔 〕	Overlapped utterances
word/word//phonetic symbol/	Utterances pronounced loudly or forcefully
(Chinese characters)	Chinese translations in Extract 4.6 of Amy's class
(?)	Inaudible utterances or an unidentified person
(word?)	Uncertain utterances

Finally, in order to offer assistance to the classroom observation data and the interview data, I will insert figures, underline the text of the figures, or make notes on these figures so that the context can be better understood. Figure 3.4, which was taken from the coursebook of Case 1, gives an example of the figures presented in the findings chapters.

Figure 3.4 An Example of the Presentation of the Figures



3.11 Criteria for Evaluating Qualitative Research

Critics of qualitative research often doubt its validity and rigour, so this section illustrates the criteria for assessing the present qualitative-based multiple case study.

To begin with, a qualitative study needs to cover the characteristics outlined in Section 3.4. For example, the current study was situated in a natural setting and involved multiple data-collection methods. The research process was emergent, from the initial attempt to follow the analytic model of traditional CF studies to carry out a sociocultural microanalysis. The data analysis started from the teacher participants' views on CF in order to achieve diverse views and multiple perspectives on the research topic (Creswell and Poth, 2018). The data analysis process was chiefly inductive but might still contain deductive thinking when the CF practices were relevant to the existing literature (Creswell and Poth, 2018). The current study attempts to provide a holistic account of teachers' CF behaviour in class, so when reporting the findings, contextual features (e.g. social factors and school policies) will also be taken into consideration (Creswell and Poth, 2018). Besides, as illustrated in Section 3.9, the current study also concerned ethical issues from the explanations of the research objectives and methods, the permission of conducting this study, the data collection process, to the findings' oral/written reports and publications.

Other criteria to evaluate the current qualitative-based multiple case study relate to the establishment of the validity, aka trustworthiness in Creswell and Poth (2018), Lincoln and Guba (1985), and Mertler (2016). Trustworthiness or validity of qualitative research is achieved when the study has the characteristics of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (e.g. Ravitch and Carl, 2016; Savenye and Robinson, 2004). Credibility relates to the rigour of the research design, so the results of a qualitative study are credible or believable (Mertler, 2016; Ravitch and Carl, 2016). The transferability is achieved when a researcher gives enough contextual information and provides a clear and in-depth description of the study so that this qualitative research could be applicable or transferable to a broader context (Mertler, 2016; Ravitch and Carl, 2016). The third component to assess the validity of a qualitative study is dependability, which relates to how the data are collected and whether the data have answered the research questions, as well as considering the consistency and stability between the research data and the researcher's argument (Ravitch and Carl, 2016). The last characteristic is confirmability, which refers to the neutrality of the interpretation of the data (Mertler, 2016; Ravitch and Carl, 2016).

Triangulation in the current study included methodological triangulation (i.e. multiple data-collection methods), data triangulation (i.e. data collected from 3 classes at 3 different schools as well as data on both the teachers' and learners views and interpretations of the teachers' CF practices) (Creswell and Poth, 2018; Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, and Allen, 1993), and theoretical triangulation (e.g. considering CF in terms of the perspectives of the teachers and the notions of SCT) (Erlandson et al., 1993; Ravitch and Carl, 2016). Triangulation overall helped strengthen credibility and confirmability of the current study (Ravitch and Carl, 2016). Methodological triangulation and theoretical triangulation also helped achieve dependability because they were used to answer the research questions, i.e. when the teachers corrected errors in class and how they corrected errors in class (Ravitch and Carl, 2016). Besides, the sequence of the data collection methods (i.e. each classroom observation followed by a stimulated-recall interview with the teachers' explanations of their classroom behaviour and thoughts on CF) helped reach the stability between the research data and my arguments, so it could also strengthen dependability (Ravitch and Carl, 2016).

In order for readers to make sense of the findings and appreciate the classroom interaction in these three cases, thick description will be used to describe all the aspects that the readers might need to know. For example, I will explain the contextual factors of the case or holistically describe the classroom interaction around teachers' CF (Erlandson et al., 1993; Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Thick description helped attain credibility and transferability (Mertler, 2016). Lastly, reflexivity has been considered throughout all stages of the current study (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). The classroom observation data and interview data had been fully transcribed. This allowed me to gain an overall picture of each case and consider the data as a whole (Atkins and Wallace, 2012), as well as enabling me to constantly cross-check my classroom observation data, interview data, and field notes written on my observation scheme. Additionally, I will reflect on my descriptions of the findings and see if I have adequately explained the classroom interaction around CF and if my interpretations of the findings are accessible to the readers. I will also review the literature to check whether another researcher has also provided similar interpretations of the findings (Ravitch and Carl, 2016). Reflexivity helped achieve confirmability (Mertler, 2016).

Except for the above standards of evaluating a qualitative study, the validity of qualitative research can also be understood by the following categories: descriptive validity, interpretive validity, theoretical validity, generalisability, and evaluative validity (Maxwell, 1992). Descriptive validity means the research data's factual accuracy – The data are not made up, and they represent what have actually happened (Cohen et al., 2011; Mertler, 2016). The current study attained descriptive validity because all of the classroom observation data and interview data were audio-recorded or/and video-recorded, so the researcher myself could continuously review the accuracy of the data. Besides, field notes which were taken during the classroom observations were used to assist in the follow-up stimulated-recall interviews where the teachers explained their own classroom behaviour and thoughts on CF. This could then help with both the accuracy of the data (i.e. descriptive validity) and the accuracy of the interpretations of the teacher participants' CF behaviour in class and their perspectives on CF (i.e. interpretive validity) (Ravitch and Carl, 2016). Thus, methodological triangulation of classroom observations, field notes, and interviews help build both descriptive validity and interpretive validity.

The third category Maxwell (1992) specified to understand the validity of qualitative research is theoretical validity. In this study, theoretical validity related to the explanations of the notions of teachers' CF between the current study and other CF studies (Mertler, 2016; Ravitch and Carl, 2016). For example, the existing theories about CF might inform the research data of the current study, e.g. recasts in SLA and scaffolding in SCT. The current study might also contribute to the CF literature, e.g. new findings that have seldom been pointed out by existing CF studies. The fourth category is generalisability. Unlike the concept of generalisability in quantitative research, qualitative research focuses on whether generalisability exists within the specific groups or circumstances being studied (Ravitch and Carl, 2016). In the current study, the three cases being studied were situated in the same context, i.e. elementary EFL classes in Taiwan. Thus, generalisability will be examined by comparing the similarities and differences of these three cases. Lastly, subjectivity is often considered as a weakness of qualitative research (Savenye and Robinson, 2004), so the final category Maxwell (1992) claimed is evaluative validity, which relates to the objective report of the findings, without being judgemental (Mertler, 2016; Ravitch and Carl, 2016). As specified before, the findings will contain the classroom

observation data, the teacher interview data, and the learner interview data, as well as referring to the existing literature in order to objectively report what actually happened in the lessons I observed. Besides, when I present the findings, I will also consider ethical issues, e.g. how the participants might feel about the words being used (Ravitch and Carl, 2016).

3.12 Summary

This chapter has detailed the research design of this study, within which the inductive microanalysis of the data is a salient characteristic. This approach was developed to compensate for limitations of the analytic framework of existing CF studies, so this inductive approach attempts to capture what actually happens in the classrooms I observed. The following chapters will present the findings of these three cases, i.e. Amy's Class, Lily's Class, and Tina's Class.

Chapter 4
Amy's Class

4.1 Introduction

The data analysis will begin with Amy's class. The following sections will firstly introduce Amy's school, Amy's educational qualifications, Amy's work experience, and Amy's class. After this, Amy's definition of error, her view on CF, and the error types Amy pointed out she had provided CF on will be illustrated. This will be followed by the presentation and analysis of the CF extracts, during which relevant classroom observation, teacher interview, and learner interview extracts or quotes will be presented to assist with the analysis.

4.2 Amy's School and Amy's Background

Amy's school was in New Taipei City, the most populous city of Taiwan. On average, more than 4,000 learners enrolled at Amy's school each year. There were more than twenty classrooms per grade (six grades in elementary school in Taiwan) and around thirty learners in each classroom. Amy was educated in Taiwan with a Bachelor's degree in English and a Master's degree in Children's English Education. Amy taught English at a cram school and a private elementary school before she worked at the public elementary school which I research into. In total, Amy had the teaching experience of 18 years, and it was her fourth year at this school when I observed her lessons.

4.3 Amy's Class

There were 29 learners (13 girls and 16 boys) in Amy's class, and the learner seating was arranged by gender (i.e. a girl's neighbours were usually male learners.). I observed 6 lessons, interviewed Amy 7 times, and conducted 4 paired learner interviews (see Chapter 3). The coursebook used in Amy's class was decided by her school, and it was called 'Hello, Darbie! (Level 7)'. This coursebook claimed it adopted the communicative language teaching approach and was designed on the basis of communicative functions and themes, and it aimed to develop learners' basic

listening, speaking, reading, and writing abilities. However, in each lesson of the coursebook, the subheadings were as follows: Let's Listen (the main texts), Let's Learn (vocabulary and sentence patterns), Let's Find Out (reading comprehension of the main texts), Let's Read (phonics), Grammar Corner (sentence patterns and grammar), Let's Sing (a song), Challenge Time (clusters of vocabulary and sentence patterns learners had learnt since the 1st level of this series of coursebooks), and Assessment Time (self-assessment of this lesson's vocabulary and sentence patterns). These subheadings imply that this coursebook focused more on vocabulary and sentence patterns and did not offer learners many opportunities to engage in meaningful communication.

In class, Amy did not seem to focus on meaningful English communication because it was not found in the lessons I observed. Instead, Amy paid specific attention to the repeated, oral practices of the coursebook's vocabulary, sentence patterns, main texts, and phonics (e.g. Extracts 4.1-4.3). In every lesson I observed, Amy also asked the learners to recite the main texts of the coursebook (i.e. reading aloud the text from memory) (e.g. Extracts 4.5.1-4.5.2; Section 4.10). Additionally, Amy neither provided supplementary material nor designed activities that aimed for real communication practice. Lastly, Amy taught the lessons in the medium of Chinese. When I was observing the lessons and transcribing the classroom data, except for the English texts of the coursebook, Amy scarcely spoke other English in class. Occasionally, Taiwanese, the dialect spoken by the majority of the people in Taiwan, was also used by Amy (see Extract 4.4). The above characteristics seem to close down the production of certain kinds of errors Amy's learners made in class, thereby affecting the error types Amy corrected in class (see Section 4.5 below).

4.4 Amy's Definition of Error and Amy's View on Corrective Feedback

Learner errors are what Amy provided CF on; thus, before presenting CF extracts, I will review Amy's definition of error and her view on CF. Section 3.10.6 introduces the transcription conventions of the classroom data and the interview data of this study. For example, spoken English is shown in colour blue.

In the first interview, Amy specifically talked about her definition of an English error:

> '*English errors can be divided into* errors *and* mistakes*. A* mistake *is something learners can make* self-correction *to, but if it's an* error*, I worry learners would keep making this error and get used to it. Thus, I would intervene, so I think I correct most of the errors* (INT1).'

In the sixth interview, when Amy and I talked about the definitions of an error of her learners, Amy expressed her opinion again:

> '*To me, if learners are able to make* self-correction*, that's a* mistake*. I feel error is something learners are unable to make self-correction to or they are unconscious of it. When I give them a chance, they are still unable to make* self-correction*, so I would make corrections* (INT6).'

Amy's viewpoint on errors and mistakes corresponds to the existing literature (Corder, 1967) that learners can self-correct their mistakes but they are unable to correct errors by themselves. In the first interview, Amy also offered her thoughts on CF:

> '*When I firstly taught English at a cram school, the school's demand was similar to an* audio-lingual *method. We had to correct errors immediately because we didn't want learners to get used to these errors. However, I found that my learners were afraid of speaking English because I kept correcting them. I feel that we lack an environment of speaking English; thus, I changed my way. I now correct written errors immediately, but I'm more tolerant of the learners' oral errors. If my teaching focus is on grammar, my correction would rather be immediate. However, if my teaching focus is on other parts, I may provide delayed correction unless I feel that all the learners could learn from those errors immediately or those errors need to be clarified immediately* (INT1)'

This quote indicates that Amy's CF method had been influenced by the educational system, her teaching experience, and her personal beliefs. When I conducted my study, Amy said her correction method then was to provide immediate CF when errors needed to be clarified instantly, when her learners could learn from an error instantly, or when the teaching focus was on grammar. She gave delayed CF for the rest of occasions. Since the timing of CF is also my research focus, I further asked Amy which one she used more frequently in class: immediate correction or delayed correction. Amy said, '*Immediate correction* (INT1)'. Her additional reasons for giving immediate CF and delayed CF are shown below.

> '*I feel learners' memory might not be so good, so if you don't correct it immediately, they might forget what they said* (INT1)'.

> '*I don't want to correct all the errors immediately because too many error corrections would interrupt the* flow *of my teaching. I feel that many errors could be explained later. They don't need to be corrected immediately* (INT1)'.

Thus, if we put what Amy said together, she corrected most of the errors, and she gave more immediate CF. Amy provided instant CF when the errors needed to be clarified instantly, when her learners could learn from these errors instantly, when the teaching focus was on grammar, or when she worried the learners might forget what they said. It is interesting to note that although Amy said she had changed her correction timing, her views here are still more or less in line with the audio-lingual method which expects an instant correction in order to avoid learners forming bad habits (Li et al., 2016). On the other hand, Amy said she might provide delayed corrections on other occasions because she felt many errors could be corrected later and because she did not want to interrupt the flow of her teaching. The latter reason is similar to the notion of the communicative language teaching approach and might fulfill the expectation of the Taiwanese government to an extent (see Chapter 1) even though no meaningful English communication was detected when I observed the lessons or transcribed the classroom data.

4.5 Error Types Amy Provided Corrective Feedback On

After reviewing Amy's own definition of an English error and her view on CF, this section will explore the oral errors Amy provided CF on. Brown (2016: 437) claimed that CF studies usually examine three kinds of error: phonological errors, lexical errors, and grammatical errors. In this study, the CF extracts for analysis are those the teachers pointed out in the interviews that they were correcting an oral error. Amy corrected phonological errors more frequently than she corrected grammatical errors, and no corrections of lexical errors were specified by Amy or discussed between me and Amy in the interviews. Amy and her learners shared the same first language, Chinese, and Amy claimed she corrected the translation error of a learner, too (see Section 4.9). Amy also pointed out that she corrected errors when the learners were reading aloud the texts of the coursebook from memory (see Section 4.8 and Section 4.10), when they engaged in phonics activities (see Section 4.7), and when they engaged in mechanical drilling of the coursebook vocabulary, sentence structures, and texts (see Section 4.6).

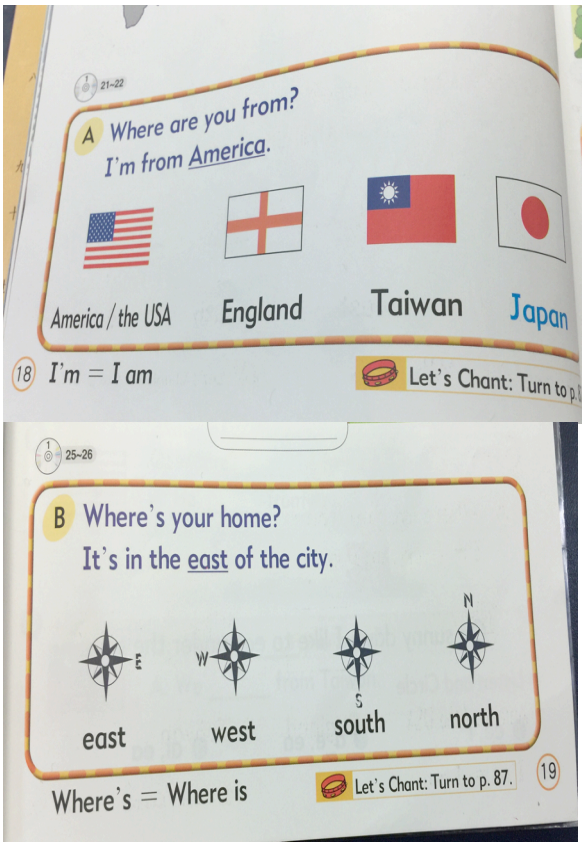
4.6 Corrective Feedback on Phonological Errors

The following sections will start with Amy's corrections of phonological errors. I will present examples of shorter CF extracts first, followed by longer CF extracts in order to show the complex classroom interaction and further demonstrate why I abandoned the analytic model of traditional CF studies and decided to carry out an inductive microanalysis of the data.

4.6.1 /ðə/ and /ði:/

The following is an example of correcting a phonological error 'it's in /ðə/ east of the city', which happened when the learners were reading aloud Lesson 2's vocabulary and sentence patterns in CO1 (i.e. the first lesson I observed) (see Figure 4.1 and Extract 4.1 below) (see Section 3.10f for transcription conventions used).

Figure 4.1 Lesson 2: Let's Learn (Vocabulary and Sentence Patterns)



From line 55 to line 63 below, Amy co-reads some texts with the learners (e.g. I'm from in line 55). This kind of random co-reading was found in all of the lessons I observed. Amy explained her behaviour in the 6th interview, '*I hope the learners can*

read the texts by themselves throughout. However, if they don't read the texts at the same pace, I would lead them (INT6)'.

Extract 4.1 (CO1)

53 Amy *Ok, please turn to page 18.* Where are you from?

54 Ls Where are you from? [I'm from
55 Amy [I'm from

56 Ls America.[America
57 Amy [America

In lines 58-59 below, Amy's overlapped utterances with the learners start from '/tiː/' and end in '/eɪ/'. Besides, in line 58, while most learners read 'the USA, /tiː/, /eɪtʃ/, /iː/, /juː/, /es/', one unidentified learner reads 'England, /iː/, /en/, /dʒiː/, /el/, /eɪ/, /en/, /diː/'. I put these utterances in the same line (line 58) because these learners co-read the rest of the texts together in line 58.

58 Ls /eɪ/, /em/, /iː/, /ɑː/, /aɪ/, /siː/, /eɪ/, [the USA, [/tiː/, /eɪtʃ/, /iː/, /juː/,
L(un) [England, /iː/, /en/, /dʒiː/, /el/, /eɪ/, /en/, /diː/
/es/, /eɪ/, England, /iː/, /en/, /dʒiː/, /el/, /eɪ/, /en/, /diː/, Taiwan,
/tiː/, /eɪ/]

59 Amy [/tiː/, /eɪtʃ/, /iː/, /juː/,
/es/, /eɪ/, England, /iː/, /en/, /dʒiː/, /el/, /eɪ/, /en/, /diː/, Taiwan,
/tiː/, /eɪ/]

60 Ls /aɪ/, /ˈdʌbəljuː/, /eɪ/, /en/, [Japan
61 Amy [Japan

62 Ls /dʒeɪ/, /eɪ/, /piː/, /eɪ/, /en/. [Where's your home?
63 Amy [Where's your home?

64 Ls It's in /ðə/ east of the city. [/is../
Ls [East
65 Amy [It's in **/ðiː../**

66 Ls east ((saying 'east' with hesitation)) of the city. East, e, a, s, t, /iː/, /eɪ/, /es/, /tiː/, west, /ˈdʌbəljuː/, /iː/, /es/, /tiː/, south, /es/, /əʊ/, /juː/, /tiː/, /eɪtʃ/, north, /en/, /əʊ/, /ɑː/, /tiː/, /eɪtʃ/

When I was observing this lesson, I noted down 'in the east' (line 64) as well as circled 'the' in my filed note. In the interview, after Amy and I watched the above video clip, Amy said, '*I know this one. Many learners said* in /ðə/ east ((line 64)), *it should be* in /ði:/ (.) in /ði:/ east (INT2)'. Thus, to Amy, the learners mispronounce 'the' in line 64, so she immediately corrects this error in line 65 by recast. Amy's recasting also combines with a stress and elongated sound for the purpose of drawing the learners' attention to it. This coincides with what Amy said in the interview after we watched the above video clip several times, '*I said the answer directly, I said the answer directly…I wanted to emphasise…to impress the answer upon the learners* (INT2)'. Amy's instant correction also corresponds with her claim in the 1st interview that if an error needs to be clarified immediately, she intervenes and corrects this error (see Section 4.4 above). I was also interested to know why Amy decided to use this correction method. Amy said, '*I think I might just want to emphasise* the*…I just wanted to use elongation and loudness to strengthen their impression of this word, an* input *by sound* (INT2)'. Lines 65-66 also show that Amy's correction process is flexible. Her focus is on giving the learners a noticeable input rather than asking them to repeat the current pronunciation of 'the' after her. After Extract 4.1, Amy moves the class on.

The mispronunciation of 'the' occurred again in another lesson I observed (CO3) when the learners also engaged in a reading activity (see Figure 4.2 and Extract 4.2 below). There were 29 learners in Amy's class, and these learners were not facing the video. I was unable to identify these individual learners so put L(un) for these unidentified individual learners below (see Section 3.10.6).

Figure 4.2 Lesson 2: Let's Listen (The Main Texts)

Extract 4.2 (CO3)

167	Ls L(un)	Where's your home? It's in [/ðə/ /ðiː/] south of the city. Oh, I see. Let me take you home.
168	Amy	*Ok, let's recite it once. Someone pronounced* it's in /ðə/ south of the city *as* it's in **/ðiː/** south of. *Did you hear it?*
169	L(un)	*Is it* [*me?*
170	L(un)	*No.* ((Responding to Amy's question in line 168))]
171	Amy	*Is it you? No, it's a boy in the back. Ok.*

In line 167, when the learners reading the main texts, one unidentified learner makes an error, '/ðiː/'. When I observed this lesson, I noted down what Amy said in line 168 (it's in /ðə/ south of the city) and put a quotation mark on 'south'. Before watching this video clip, Amy said, '*before I corrected it, I waited until the class finished the last two sentences* (INT4)'. To Amy, she did not correct this error immediately, but she added later that '*but I didn't delay too much* (INT4)'. Amy's reason for not correcting the error in line 167 (/ðiː/) as instantly as she did in Extract 4.1 above is that '*there was only one learner, so it's fine* (INT4)'. This coincides with what Amy said in the 1st interview that unless all of her learners could learn from that error, she would provide delayed correction.

In line 168, Amy gave explicit correction (*Someone pronounced* it's in /ðə/ south of the city as it's in /ðiː/ south of) with a stress on '/ðiː/'. What happens after this is interesting. Instead of asking the learner who made an error in line 167 to correct his error, Amy begins to interact with her learners and see if they heard that error or not (*Did you hear it?*). Following an unidentified learner's response in line 169 (*Is it me?*), Amy's response in line 171 could start from '*No, it's a boy in the back*'. However, she decides to respond by saying '*Is it you?*' with a rising intonation, which appears to tease the learner in line 169 to an extent.

I would like to draw attention to what Amy further said in the interview, '*I remember who made this error, but he didn't admit to it. Actually, his English is very good. I think sometimes we are like this. We may forget what we've just said…I think he'd have still denied his error even if I'd corrected it immediately. I understand his personality* (INT4)'. There are two indications here. Firstly, Amy's statement relates

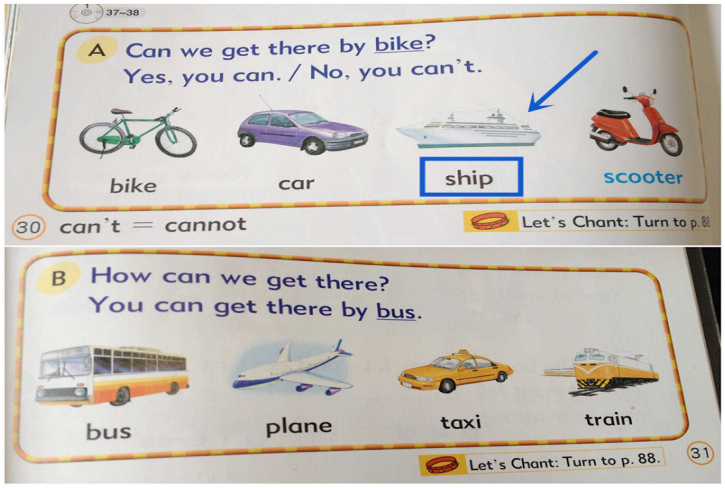
to individual learner differences. Amy mentioned in the 2nd interview that she had been teaching these learners for more than one year, which might be a reason why she understood individual learners' personalities. The second indication is interesting. What Amy said '*his English is very good*' and '*he'd have still denied his error even if I'd corrected it immediately*' infers that what the learner made might actually be a mistake rather than an error in SLA terms.

If we look at Extract 4.1 and Extract 4.2 together, after these two errors occur, Amy is the only person giving CF. Amy's corrections are both straightforward, i.e. stressing the correct utterance (line 65 in Extract 4.1) or the error (line 168 in Extract 4.2). This is similar to what Amy's learners said about her CF strategies, '*Amy would explicitly specify our error* (INT1)' and '*once we finish, Amy may say where our error is and correct it immediately* (INL2)'. Besides, in both extracts, Amy only focuses on her own CF, after which she does not require the learners to repeat the correct pronunciation after her. Another interesting finding is that Amy's English utterances are the coursebook's texts or the learner's error (e.g. line 65 and line 168). On other occasions, she only uses Chinese, which closes down the opportunity for meaningful English communication to take place (lines 168-171) and reduces the chances for her learners to make lexical, grammatical errors, or other phonological errors. Lastly, Amy's learners in these two extracts only engage in mechanical reading during which Amy corrected their phonological errors. These reading activities actually happened at the beginning of every lesson I observed. This type of teaching is different from a communicative focus that has been characterised in the CF traditions.

4.6.2 Ship

I will present another example of correcting the pronunciation error of 'ship'. At the beginning of the 2nd interview, before watching any video clips, Amy specified that she corrected '*pronunciation when talking about* sheep *and* ship (INT2)' (see Figure 4.3 below). This correction was also pointed out by one of Amy's learners when I asked them whether Amy corrected their errors or not in CO1, '*yes,* sheep *and* ship*…Amy firstly said where our error was, and then we repeated the correct pronunciation for a few times* (INL1)'

Figure 4.3 Lesson 3: Let's Learn (Vocabulary and Sentence Patterns)



What Amy and her learner said relates to one of Lesson 3's vocabulary, 'ship'. Amy told the learners, '*ok, I'd like to introduce two words because they are easily mispronounced* ((while writing 'sheep' and 'ship' on the blackboard)) (CO1)'. After this, many learners pronounced these two words, 'sheep' and 'ship' on their own (line 413 below). Although it was not heard when I transcribed this extract, Amy specified, '*they were saying* shit (INT2)'. Thus, it could be seen from the video that Amy was writing down 'ship' with a little smile on her face. Extract 4.3.1 describes what happened then and next.

Extract 4.3.1 (CO1)

413 Ls /ʃi:/ ((practising the pronunciation on their own))
Ls /ʃɪ/ ((practising the pronunciation on their own))

414 Amy ((brow furrowing)) *This, why, why, somehow, did I hear some speaking bad language?*

415 Ls ((Laughter))

416 Amy *Number 1, you should pronounce* ((it)) *correctly. Ok, here* ((underlining letters 'ee' on the blackboard)) ((brow furrowing)) ***Who*** ((brow furrowing and her finger facing up and pointing to and looking at one side of the classroom)) ***this side****, is it* ((with a smiley face)) *Number 12?*

417 L(un) ((Laughter))

418 L12 *no, teacher, certainly not, I didn't* ((with laughter)).

419 L(un) *Yes.*

420 Amy *Yes,* ((with a doubtful face)) *everyone's*

pointing to you ((her finger keeping pointing at a specific learner))
((from looking at a specific learner with a little smiley face to looking at another direction with a doubtful face)) *everyone's pointing to you.*
((her finger keeping pointing at that learner and looking at that learner again with a smiley face))

421 L(un) *Yes, I heard* (?)
422 L12 *ok, ok, ok.*

The phonological error has not occurred yet, but this extract is interesting because two of Amy's learners, L1 and L12, engage in some daring language play by deliberately saying 'shit'. Chinese indeed has similar sounds like '/p/' and '/t/', so L1 and L2 say 'shit' for fun. As shown in this extract, L1 says 'shit' to raise laughter of other learners (line 415) and increase the solidarity among his supporter (L12), who again raises laughter of an unidentified learner (line 417) (Cook, 2000). Additionally, when these two learners make this joke, 'shit', they are trying to challenge Amy, so Amy's authority is tested. Based on Amy's verbal expressions in line 416 and line 420 (a smiley face) as well as her comments on the rude word she has heard in line 420, Amy is amused, so saying 'shit' is a joke Amy can afford. In this extract, we can also notice that Amy calls her learners by their student number (*Number 1* and *Number 12* in line 416). In the 6 lessons I observed, Amy sometimes called the learners their English names when they had phatic conversation at the beginning of a lesson. However, since Amy's teaching activity started, there was only one occasion that Amy mentioned an English name (i.e. 'Jimmy' in CO4). Besides, Amy never called her learners their Chinese names. In Taiwan, it is common for teachers to call learners by their student number, especially in a big class. However, the extent to which this is used varies from teacher to teacher.

After Extract 4.3.1, Amy's learners either pronounced 'sheep' and 'ship' on their own or repeated them after Amy, during which Amy said she corrected her learners' phonological errors (see Extract 4.3.2 below). In line with Amy's and her learner's earlier claim, in both line 454 and line 456 below, Amy specifies the phonological error, corrects the error explicitly, and asks the learners to repeat 'ship'. As Amy said before watching this video clip, '*I corrected the error directly, yeah, I corrected it directly. I heard the learner's pronunciation, after which I told them it's wrong when*

they pronounced it incorrectly (INT2)'. Amy agreed that after this, she told the learners the correct pronunciation.

Extract 4.3.2 (CO1)

452	Amy	((pointing to the 'ship' on the blackboard)) ship.
453	Ls Ls	sheep ship
454	Amy	*This doesn't* ((making a gesture with her two fingers imitating an open mouth)) *open the mouth,* ship ((making a gesture with her two fingers imitating a slightly open mouth))
455	Ls L(un)	ship (?)
456	Amy	((a short pause)) ((with a doubtful face and head movement)) ((a pause)) *I, I feel this side, there is a* ((meanwhile a doubtful face)) *very weird sound* ((meanwhile a slightly smiley face)), *again,* ship.

Extract 4.3.2 shows Amy's most complex CF process presented so far. Firstly, the errors in line 453 and line 455 do not surprise Amy because she already claimed that 'sheep' and 'ship' are easily mispronounced. In SCT terms, the learners' ZPD therefore begins in line 453 when an error occurs. Amy's error treatment process (i.e. mediation in SCT terms) starts in line 454 through an explanation about how the mouth should be used to pronounce this sound, 'ship'. This is followed by another CF move through a recast (ship). While Amy is providing these verbal CF moves, she concurrently offers nonverbal clues by adding hand gestures. However, a phonological error of 'ship' still occurs in line 455. Amy continues to offer CF in line 456, which is even more complicated than her strategies in line 454. Firstly, in line 456, Amy's error treatment begins with a short pause. This is followed by two nonverbal strategies, a facial expression (a doubtful face) and head movement, after which Amy offers the 3rd CF move by pause. It is clear that Amy's CF strategies so far only involve nonverbal strategies. Next, Amy's 4th CF move combines two nonverbal facial expressions (a doubtful face and a slightly smiley face) with one verbal strategy indicating that an error has occurred (*I feel this side, there is a very weird sound*). Amy's error treatment process ends by asking the learners to practise the pronunciation of 'ship' again through two CF moves, instructing the learners (*again*) and demonstrating the correct pronunciation (ship). Thus, Amy has used

scaffolding in Extract 4.3.2 because she assists her learners in both line 454 and line 456 in order for them to pronounce 'ship' correctly (e.g. Maybin, Mercer, and Stierer, 1992).

In the 2nd interview, I was wondering why Amy said, '*I feel this side, there is a very weird sound*'. She explained,

> '*I heard one learner on that side make an error, but I didn't know who that learner was. My strategy* ((line 456)) *may also let them be more* aware *of their later pronunciation. Besides, unless that learner doesn't care to be corrected in front of the whole class, I don't correct specific learners' pronunciation errors because some learners just cannot pronounce words correctly. My corrections would make them feel ashamed.* (INT2)'

Amy's above claim points out the learners' innate pronunciation abilities, their possible reactions to her CF, and self-esteem. Besides, another function of Amy's CF in line 456 is to enable the learners to pay more attention to their own pronunciation when they engage in group practice after Extract 4.3.2 (see below when Amy continued her explanation).

> '*I wanted them to practise the word again. I decided to divide the learners into 3 groups. It's earlier for me to identify which learner had made that error. After this, I found that their pronunciations were ok. If I hadn't asked them to practise it again in groups, they might have thought their pronunciation was correct.* (INT2)'

Thus, when correcting this phonological error of 'ship' (both Extract 4.3.2 and what happened after this extract), Amy firstly identifies that one learner is still unable to pronounce 'ship' correctly in line 456 and then provides appropriate error treatment. To Amy, the appropriate approach is to ask the learners to practise the word in groups, which happened after Extract 4.3.2. The result suggests that Amy was satisfied with her CF strategy (*I found that their pronunciations were* ok). In the interview, Amy gave further reasons for asking the learners to practise the pronunciation in groups, providing direct corrections, and her corrections of 'ship' in general.

> '*In fact, if the focus of my lesson had been on pronunciation, I'd have asked them to pronounce it individually. However, today's lesson focused on vocabulary, so I just mentioned the pronunciation in passing and asked them to practise it in groups. Besides, I decided to correct the error directly because I think the learners may not be able to control their tongues easily, so the effect of this short-term correction may not be seen immediately.*

> *Another reason to correct them directly is that it's difficult for the learners themselves to notice the differences between their errors and the correct pronunciation. Lastly, I use these corrections* ((her corrections of 'ship' in general)) *because I wanted to save time. This class fell behind schedule.* (INT2)'

Here, Amy specified time restriction and the class schedule influenced her decisions on CF. Besides, this quote is very interesting. Extract 4.3.2 shows that whenever Amy hears an error or whenever she feels a learner does not pronounce 'ship' correctly, she makes corrections immediately. This instant CF could be justified by what Amy said in the 4th interview that '*It also depends on what I am teaching. If it's about the grammar or vocabulary, I might correct it immediately. If it's about the main texts, I might finish my teaching first* (INT4)'. However, Amy's above quote and her immediate corrections are inconsistent with her claim in the 1st interview. In the above quote, Amy said she provided these corrections because teaching pronunciation was not her lesson focus. However, in the 1st interview, Amy said that she would provide delayed CF if the error is not the focus of her lesson. Additionally, Amy's correction of this pronunciation, 'ship', lasted 2 minutes and 20 seconds in total, which is much longer than many other corrections in the 6 lessons I observed. The error in pronouncing 'ship' reoccurred in the same lesson as well as in CO2, and Amy also provided CF, then. Furthermore, Amy's correction of 'ship' was specified in two learner interviews, '*yes,* sheep *and* ship (INL1)' and '*ship's English,* ship (INL4)'. These findings imply that Amy spent quite an amount of time correcting the phonology related error in 'ship' and her corrections were salient enough for the learners to both notice and remember. This again contradicts her above claim about time limitation. Thus, an interesting finding of mismatches between Amy's claims in the interviews and her classroom behaviour has been discovered.

Consequently, like Extract 4.1 and Extract 4.2, no meaningful English communication is found in Extract 4.3.1 and Extract 4.3.2. From the extracts presented so far, Amy was the only CF provider; therefore, in SCT terms, the mediation (i.e. the error treatment process) took the form of other-regulation. Besides, it has gradually become a noticeable characteristic that Amy used Chinese predominantly in class, e.g. only Chinese in Extract 4.3.1. Amy's massive use of Chinese and her correction strategies seem to limit the learners' chances of making

other kinds of errors (e.g. lexical errors) and then influence the kinds of errors Amy provides CF on (i.e. only providing CF on phonological errors).

Lastly, it is interesting to discover that Amy's complex CF process in Extract 4.3.2 is probably one of her common ways to correct errors in class. The reason is that these CF strategies resemble what Amy's learners said in the interviews when I asked them about Amy's error correction methods or how they knew Amy was correcting them.

> '*Amy would explicitly specify our error, after which we repeat the correct answer after her for a few times* (INL1)'.
>
> '*Amy would keep asking us to repeat a word after her. If someone still pronounces it incorrectly, Amy would correct that person's error* (INL4)'.
>
> '*Amy would ask us to repeatedly read aloud new words until we become familiar with them* (INL3)'.
>
> '*Amy would correct it if we pronounce a word incorrectly* (INL2 and INL4)'.
>
> '*Once we finish, Amy may say where our error is and then correct it immediately* (INL2)'.

The 1st quote and the 2nd quote match Extract 4.3.2. The above learner interview quotes show four indications. Firstly, Amy's common correction methods were to specify a learner error and ask the learners to repeat the correct utterance after her for a few times. Secondly, Amy often corrected phonological errors. Thirdly, these CF strategies were explicit enough for the learners to notice them. The last indication is that Amy usually provided immediate CF following an error.

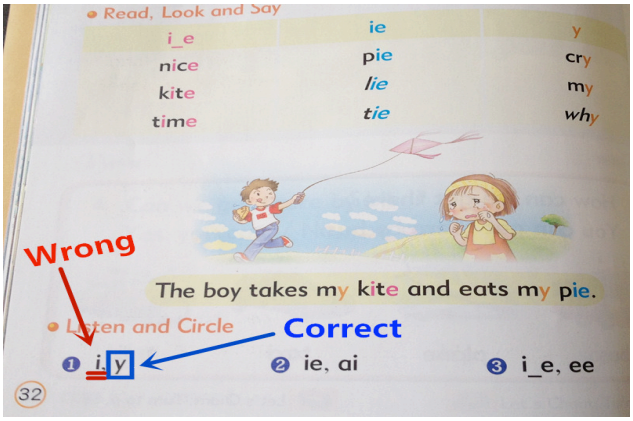
4.7 Corrective Feedback on the Spelling Error in 'Fly'

There was a phonics exercise in each lesson of the coursebook (see Figure 4.4 below). At the beginning of the 6th interview, before watching any CF video clips, Amy already pointed out that she corrected '*Lesson 3's pronunciation error. It happened when the learners listened to what I'd said and circled one answer from two options* (INT6)' (see Figure 4.4). Thus, I will present this example below.

Lesson 3's phonics section teaches the pronunciation of '/aɪ/' (i_e, ie, and y in Figure 4.4 below), so each question in this phonics exercise contains this pronunciation, '/aɪ/' (y in Question 1, 'ie' in Question 2, and 'i_e' in Question 3). What Amy said

relates to Question 1 of this exercise. In class, Amy said '/flaɪ/', so her learners should circle letter 'y'. The reason is that from what the learners had learnt, letter 'i' is pronounced as '/ɪ/' (e.g. 'ship') and letter 'y' is pronounced as '/aɪ/' (e.g. 'fly') (see Extract 4.4 below).

Figure 4.4 Lesson 3: Let's Read (Phonics)



Extract 4.4 (CO5)

422	Amy	number one, number one ((a pause for at least one second)) /flaɪ/ ((a pause for around 2 seconds)) /flaɪ/ ((a pause for around 1.5 seconds)) /flaɪ/. *Other people, please be quiet. Ok, Number 15, which one to circle,* /aɪ/ *or* /waɪ/ ((looking at L15)).
423	L15	/aɪ/
424	Amy	((looking at the coursebook and then looking at L15 with her mouth open and a surprising face))
425	L10	*circle* /aɪ/ (↑) ((meanwhile having a doubtful face)) ((turning around and mouthing the correct answer '/waɪ/' to L15))

In line 422, Amy says '/flaɪ/', so based on what the learners have learnt, the correct answer should be '/waɪ/'. A spelling error therefore occurs in line 423 (/aɪ/), after which Amy provides immediate CF in line 424. In the interview, I was wondering why Amy decided to correct this error. She explained that she wanted to know whether '*the learners just chose an answer from these two options or whether they really understood the phonics rules and were able to use them* (INT6)'. Amy's claim here and her CF behaviour in Extract 4.4 are similar to the notion of dynamic assessment (Davin, 2013). The reason is that while Amy is assessing her learners' phonics abilities, she is also teaching them letter 'y' is spelled '/aɪ/' in this exercise. After Amy's explanation, I continued to ask her how she corrected this error. Amy

replied, '*I firstly asked him which one he would choose. Then, after he gave a wrong answer, I showed him an unbelievable facial expression* ((lines 422-424)) *Then, I wrote both options on the blackboard, compared them, and reviewed the phonics rules* ((from line 440 below)) (INT6)'. The former fits lines 422-424, and the latter coincides with what happens from line 440 below. Firstly, following L15's error in line 423 above, in the video, Amy gives four notable nonverbal moves. She firstly looks down to stare at the coursebook, followed by gazing at this learner plus two exaggerated expressions, an open mouth and a surprising face. After these extraordinary nonverbal moves, Amy combines a verbal repetition of the error (*circle* /aɪ/), with a rising intonation on '/aɪ/' and a doubtful face.

Next, it is interesting to see what happens in line 425. Even Amy asks other learners to be quiet in line 422, L10 sitting in front of L15 turns around and mouths the correct answer, '/waɪ/'. There are several implications here. Firstly, it shows that individual learners have different development states. In SCT terms, it means a ZPD varies from learner to learner (Lev Vygotsky, 1978). Secondly, it indicates the dynamic feature of a classroom because this learner disregards what Amy has said and then intervenes in Amy's error treatment process through other-regulation. This peer CF can have a subsequent influence on the assistance Amy needs to provide for L15 to correct this error. That is, following L10's peer correction in line 425, Amy might need to give either more CF or less CF.

In this extract, after Amy's CF in line 424 and L10's peer correction in line 425, L15 has not responded yet. Amy appears to ignore L10's peer correction because she continues to focus on her CF towards L15 in line 426 below.

426	Amy	*is it* (↑) ((saying this in Taiwanese))	
427	Ls	((laughter))	
428	L10	((turning around and mouthing the correct answer /waɪ/ to L15))	
429	L15		/aɪ/
430	Amy	((with a slightly smiley face))	*is it* (↑) ((saying it in Taiwanese, together with a slightly smiley face))
431	L(un)	((laughter))	
432	L10	((the same as line 428))	

433 L(un) *should be* (/flaɪ/?)
434 Amy ((pausing for at least 0.5 second)) /flaɪ../ ((looking at L15))

435 L10 *Which sound did you hear?* ((looking at L15))
((mouthing '/waɪ/' to L15 for three times))

In lines 426-434, Amy's CF takes place in lines 426, 430, and 434. At first sight, Amy uses the same CF strategy in both line 426 and line 430, i.e. a verbal doubt (*is it?*) about L15's erroneous answer (/aɪ/). However, Amy's CF is indeed more complicated than this and contains an interesting use of code-switching. Firstly, instead of responding to L10's peer CF (line 425), Amy decides to provide another CF in line 426 (*is it?*). Next, while there is only one verbal CF strategy in line 426, Amy says '*is it*' in Taiwanese, which is the most spoken dialect of Taiwan. The use of this dialect may have an influence on the subsequent performance of L15 and then influence Amy's subsequent CF. Next, after Amy's correction in line 426, L15 still makes the same error in line 429, so Amy gives another immediate correction in line 430. Here, Amy again neglects L10's peer correction in line 428 and only pays attention to her CF towards L15's error in line 429. Amy's error treatment in line 430 begins with a nonverbal facial expression (a slightly smiley face) showing a doubt about L15's answer in line 429. After this, Amy gives the same verbal strategy in Taiwanese (*is it?*), but this time, she says it with a slightly rising tone and a slightly smiley face. Following Amy's correction in line 430, L15 still has not responded, so Amy continues her error treatment in line 434. This time, Amy combines a recast with an elongated sound (/flaɪ../) and concurrently stares at L15. While Amy is still looking at L15, she provides another verbal CF strategy by elicitation (*Which sound did you hear?*).

Thus, from the start of the error in line 423 to line 434, Amy has been erecting scaffolding through various verbal CF strategies, different nonverbal CF strategies, combinations of verbal CF strategies and nonverbal CF strategies, and the use of a dialect and exaggerated sounds. We can also see nonverbal as well as verbal peer correction taking place in lines 425, 428, 432, and 433. It is interesting to discover that Amy ignores all of these peer corrections and keeps controlling the turn-taking of the interaction in lines 426, 430, and 434 (Garton, 2012; Markee, 2004).

Nonetheless, following Amy's correction in line 434, L15 has still not provided a correct answer. Thus, Amy continues her CF in line 436 below.

436 Amy /aɪ/, *which one to circle for /aɪ/* ((looking at L15 first and then looking at her coursebook)) ((slightly mouthing the sound of '/aɪ/'))

Amy's oral strategies here are the same as those of line 434 above, the use of recast and elicitation. However, this time, Amy's recast is shorter (/aɪ/), which only includes the accurate sound. After this, Amy combines elicitation with a recast (*which one to circle for /*aɪ/). Besides, Amy also gives nonverbal strategies by looking at L15, looking at her own coursebook, and slightly mouthing the correct answer, '/aɪ/'. After this, it seems that L15 either does not respond or speaks too quietly, so Amy continues her CF in line 438.

437 L10 ((mouthing '/waɪ/' to L15 for several times)) ((overlapping with Amy's utterance below from his second mouthing))
438 Amy ((looking at L15)) *Number 15, I cannot hear it* ((a pause for one second)) *Which one to circle* (↑) ((while putting her right hand close to the right ear because she wants L15 to speak louder)) ((this action keeping on around one more second)) ((a pause around one second)) ((making a surprising '/h/' sound, together with her mouth open and a surprising face)) *louder*.

From line 424 to line 436, Amy appears to put too much pressure on L15, who seems frozen now, so we can see that in line 438, Amy starts to use different CF strategies to break the ice. Firstly, Amy gazes at L15, during which she gives a verbal communication strategy attempting to push L15 to produce an answer (*I cannot hear it*). Unfortunately, this strategy does not work because L15 remains silent even Amy has paused for one second. Thus, Amy tries another CF through a combination of elicitation (*which one to circle*) with a hand gesture (putting her hand close to her ear). After this, Amy paused again, but L15 stays silent. Amy does not give up here as she continues to offer anther CF by combining a surprising '/h/' sound with two facial expressions (an open mouth and a surprising face). After this, Amy's mediation ends with another common communicative strategy (*louder*) which has finally pushed L15 to speak in line 439 below.

439 L15 /aɪ/(↑) ((in an interrogative tone))

440 Amy **/aɪ/**, ((standing up)) *ok, everyone* ((turning towards the blackboard))
441 L(un) **/waɪ/**
442 Ls
443 Amy ((writing down letter 'i' on the blackboard)) [/waɪ/ /aɪ/, /aɪ/, /aɪ/] ((asking the learners the phonics of letter 'i'))
444 Ls /ɪ/, /ɪ/, /ɪ/ ((Amy miming '/ɪ/'))

445 Amy *The* [*sound* /ɪ/] *of* /aɪ/ *is* /ɪ/.
446 L(un)

447 L(un) /flɪ/

In line 439, L15 still makes an error. Thus, we can see Amy forcefully repeats this error, '/aɪ/' in line 440, after which Amy uses another form of mediation to assist her CF, i.e. object-regulation through written CF on a blackboard in line 443. An interesting finding is discovered here. More than one of Amy's learners indeed say the correct answer, '/waɪ/', in lines 441-442, especially a clear and loud '/waɪ/' in line 441. However, Amy again makes no response to any of these peer corrections and continues her own error treatment from line 443. In the interview, I asked Amy her reason for this. She replied, '*because L15 didn't say the correct answer. I wanted him to compare the difference between these two sounds,* '/aɪ/' *and* '/ɪ/' (INT6)'. What Amy said justifies her behaviour from line 443. The reason is that Amy could provide the correct answer directly in line 443, but she does not. She continues to build scaffolding by writing down letter 'i' on the blackboard and asking the learners its phonetic sound (/aɪ/, /aɪ/, /aɪ/). In line 445, Amy repeats the correct answer after her learners with a clear explanation (*the sound of* /aɪ/ *is* /ɪ/).

After this, Amy prompts her learners to say the correct answer by elicitation in line 448 below (*what we just heard is* /flaɪ/ *or* /flɪ/). This CF strategy of offering the learners two options was specified by Amy in both the 4th interview and the 7th interview when she talked about her frequently used CF strategies. After this, Amy's mediation of this phonological error is close to the end because she writes down the correct answer, '/waɪ/', on the blackboard. However, unexpected learner behaviour happens at the same time in line 449.

448 Amy *So what we just heard is* /flaɪ/(↑) *or* /flɪ/(↑)

449 Ls [/flaɪ/ ((Amy writes down the correct answer, '/waɪ/', on the blackboard))
Ls /flɪ/]

450 Amy [*Rubbish* ((with a very happy face)) ((laughing out loud))
451 Ls ((laughing out loud))]

452 L(un) /flaɪ/ ((some learners laughing))

453 L(un) /hu [`li:/ ((some learners laughing))

454 Amy *You* *'re* [*kidding me!* ((in Taiwanese while laughing))

455 L(un) /θri:/]

456 L(un) [((laughter))
457 Amy *What I just* *said was* /flaɪ/, ((with a slightly smiley face))]

/aɪ/ ((saying this while slightly laughing and also gently laughing after this))

It is very interesting to see some of Amy's learners play the language in line 449 by saying the wrong answer (/flɪ/) for fun. These learners say '/flɪ/' to 'cause offence to his opponent ((line 452)), simultaneously raise laughter ((lines 450-457)), and augment the sense of solidarity among his supporters ((line 453 and line 455)) (Cook, 2000: 71)'. Additionally, when the learners make this joke (/flɪ/), Amy's authority is tested. Similar to the result of saying 'shit' in Extract 4.3.1, Amy is not angry and can afford this joke. After this, Amy corrects the learners' joke explicitly in line 457 (*What I just said was* /flaɪ/, /aɪ/). What happened after this extract was that Amy asked her learners to repeat the correct answer, '/flaɪ/', after her once. This again coincides with what Amy's learners said in the interviews (e.g. repeating a word after Amy).

In this phonics exercise, Amy also corrected another learner who made an error in answering Question 2. However, I found that Amy spent much longer time correcting Question 1 than Question 2. Amy's explanation below shows that she considered individual learners' differences and individual learners' ZPD when she provided CF (Lev Vygotsky, 1978).

> '*because of their personalities. Number 15 is able to express himself. He was not concentrating on the lesson when I asked him this question, so I gave him*

> *time to think. Additionally, his English level is not very good, and I was uncertain whether he knew the answer or not, so I also wanted to confirm his phonics abilities. However, Number 8* ((the learner answering Question 2)) *never responds my question no matter how much time I give him. He just looks at me, so I feel it's a waste of time* (INT6)'.

Firstly, it is interesting to discover that Amy said L15 was able to express himself. However, possibly due to the pressure Amy puts on him in Extract 4.4 above, L15 does not seem to say anything from line 424 to line 438. Next, Amy's CF strategies in Extract 4.4 generally resemble what she said in the interviews. In the 6th interview, I asked Amy which CF method she thought she used the most often. She responded,

> '*I like to give the learners time and space to think one more time and clarify their errors. I have told them that there must be a reason for them to choose this answer. For example, when I corrected today's phonological errors, I asked them that "is it true?". I gave them a chance to re-think the answer* (INT6)'.

Likewise, in the 1st interview, Amy pointed out her correction strategies that '*the first method I use may be doubting. Then, I will ask the learner to think and see if he could self-correct it. If not, I will correct it or other classmates correct it* (INT1)'. The former part is echoed with Amy's claim in the 7th interview when she talked about one of the most frequent CF strategies she used in the 6 lessons I observed, '*I may use facial expressions to tell them, "Is it?*" (INT7)'.

Besides, I asked Amy her view on the use of recasting. Although Amy provided CF through a recast in line 434 and line 436, she personally did not like this CF strategy, and she preferred prompts to recasts. Her reason is that

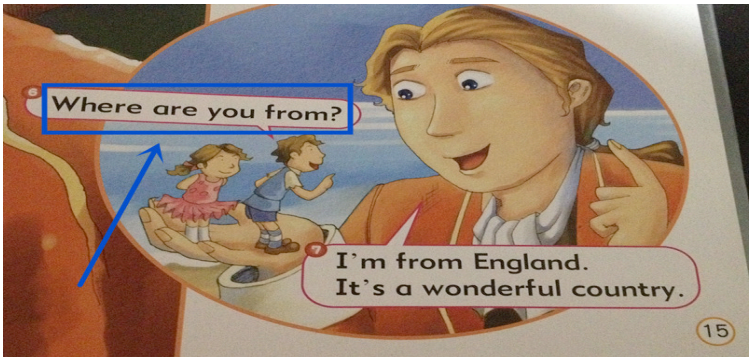
> '*I think recasting is more suitable for adults who are sensitive and can concentrate on a lesson. For example, today, in another class right after your observation, I used this correction method and told the learner the correct answer was* /waɪ/. *However, he still circled the other answer in front of me. I felt very surprised* (INT6)'.

Lastly, in the interview, I also asked Amy if these CF strategies in Extract 4.4 above had achieved the result she wanted or not. Amy replied, '*I have achieved the result of error correction, but I didn't confirm whether L15 had acquired the correct phonetic sound or not* (INT6)'. Amy's statement implies her doubt about the role CF plays in SLA (El Tatawy, 2002).

4.8 Corrective Feedback on the Grammatical Error in 'Where are you from?'

In the interviews, Amy also agreed she corrected the learners' grammatical errors. I will present an example here. At the beginning of the 4th interview, before watching any relevant video clips, Amy said, '*today, I did something different. I wrote that learner's error on the blackboard because I found that was a very serious grammatical error. That's totally different from our coursebook's text* (INT4)'. Amy's claim here relates to the reasons she corrected this error (*a very serious grammatical error*) as well as the way she corrected this error (*wrote that learner's error on the blackboard*). What Amy said was the moment when she asked learner number 11 to come to the front of the classroom and recite Lesson 2's main texts (see Figure 4.5 below). Before I present this example, I will firstly explain what reciting texts mean.

Figure 4.5 Lesson 2: Let's Listen (The Main Texts)



In the coursebook, there are main texts in each lesson. In all of the COs I observed, there was always an activity where Amy asked her learners to close their coursebook and read aloud the main texts from memory. This means the learners needed to remember these texts, so I use the terms 'recite', 'reciting', or 'recitation' to describe this activity. Among the 6 lessons I observed, Amy's learners recited Lesson 2's main texts in COs 1-4 and Lesson 3's main texts in COs 5-6. Amy's learners usually recited the text at a fast pace. The whole class might recite the text together (i.e. COs 1-6). They might also be divided into groups to engage in group recitation (i.e. COs 2-4). There was only one occasion that one learner was asked to recite the text individually (i.e. Extract 4.5 below). Sometimes, prior to reciting activities (i.e. COs 5-6), the learners looked at the text and repeated it after Amy. The total time Amy's

class engaged in reciting activities is between 1 minute (CO1) and 10.5 minutes (CO3).

Amy's correction of this grammatical error happened when one learner recited Lesson 2's main texts alone. He said, 'Where's your from', instead of the correct sentence, 'Where are you from' (see Figure 4.5 above and Extract 4.5.1 below).

Extract 4.5.1 (CO3)

295	Amy	*Number 11, you need to recite the texts alone.* Wake up, Giant, ready (↑), go.
296	L11	(?) (Where?) am I? you (.) are
297	L(un)	(?) tiny world
298	L11	in the (.) in the
299	L(un)	*be quiet.*
300	L11	Where's your from (↓) ((in a fast pace))
301	Amy	((opening the mouth with a surprising face for around 1 second)) **Where's your from (↑)**
302	Ls	((laughter))
303	L(un)	whoa
304	L(un)	Where's your from (↑), Where's your from (↑) ((Amy drops a white chalk))
305	Amy	*I'm too excited, so I* (?) *the white chalk. Ok, I will write down this sentence. Number 11, please continue to recite the texts* ((the learners laugh))
306	L(un)	teeny- [tiny world
307	Amy	*Ok,* where's your from (↓)
308	Ls	((Laughing))
309	Amy	Where's your from (↓)*, ok, then,* I'm from England ((the learners laugh))

In the interview, after Amy and I watched the above video clip, Amy explained her CF strategies here. '*L11 said this sentence incorrectly* ((line 300))*, so I gave him a chance* ((line 301))*. He still hadn't corrected it, so I wrote it down* ((line 305)). Thus, following L11's error (Where's your from), Amy immediately signifies that something is wrong in line 301 through opening her mouth with a surprising face for around 1 second, as well as orally repeating this erroneous sentence loudly (Where's your from). After this, other learners seem to feel this error is funny, so from line 302, some learners start to laugh out loud, and one unidentified learner appears to repeat this erroneous sentence twice for fun. In the meantime, Amy tries to write down texts on the blackboard, but she drops a white chalk. Amy explains this in line 305, but

some of her utterances are inaudible due to the learners' laughter. In SCT terms, Amy's mediation again takes two forms, other-regulation by Amy and object-regulation by the use of the blackboard. However, unlike Extract 4.4 above, what Amy does in line 305 is writing down this erroneous sentence (Where's your from). In the interview, I asked Amy whether she had used the same correction method or not (i.e. writing texts on the blackboard) and how often she had used this method. Amy said, '*seldom, but I use it when there is a serious error and I want to leave an impression on them* (INT4)'. Next, Amy uses the same CF strategy in both line 307 and line 309, an oral repetition of the incorrect sentence. Amy's error treatment stops in line 309 when she moves on to the next sentence (I'm from England). Amy explained her behaviour here in the interview. '*According to L11's personality, he would have told me the correct answer if he'd known it. Thus, I decided to let other learners recite the texts first* (INT4)'. Like what Amy said, after Extract 4.5.1, she asked L11 to go back to his seat first, after which some other learners recited the texts. Then, Amy corrected this error again after these reciting activities finished (see Extract 4.5.2 below).

From Amy's above explanations, she again considered individual learners' differences. Amy also concurrently assessed L11's grammatical abilities and figured out the appropriate CF methods to help L11 correct the error. In Extract 4.5.1 above, Amy tries facial expressions and repetition of the error to give L11 a chance to self-correct the error. After these CF strategies fail, due to L11's personality, Amy decides to offer delayed CF in Extract 4.5.2 below. To an extent, Amy's immediate CF in Extract 4.5.1 and delayed CF in Extract 4.5.2 are echoed with what she said in the 1st interview that too many immediate corrections would interrupt the flow of her teaching unless that error needs to be clarified immediately. Amy's behaviour also coincides with her claim in the 4th interview.

> '*Sometimes, I want to finish an activity first, after which I can concentrate on my correction. It also depends on what I am teaching. If it's about the grammar or vocabulary, I might correct it immediately. If it's about the main texts, I might finish my teaching first before I tell the learners what I've heard earlier* (INT4)'.

Thus, in Extract 4.5.1 above, L11 makes a serious grammatical error, so Amy interrupts him immediately. After this, Amy moves back to her normal way of giving

CF and makes delayed CF after all of the reciting activities have finished (see Extract 4.5.2 below). The class in Extract 4.5.2 is not as quietly as that in Extract 4.4, and these learners are not facing the video as L11 is, so I am unable to identify these learners of this extract.

Extract 4.5.2 (CO3)

493 Amy ((looking at the erroneous sentence on the blackboard for around 2 seconds)) **Where..**'s your (↑) from (↑) ((still looking at this sentence))

494 L(un) Where's your from (↓) ((smiling slightly))
495 Ls ((laughter))
496 L(un) Where's your

497 Ls Where are you from (↓) ((Amy shows a doubtful face and slowly turning her face to look at Number 11))

498 L(un) Where are you from (↓)
499 L(un) ((laughter))

500 L(un) Where are you from (↓)
501 Amy *Number 11*

502 L(un) **Where are you from (↓)**
503 L(un) ((laughing out loud))
504 Amy Where's your from (↓)

In line 493, Amy again starts with her CF through a nonverbal strategy, i.e. staring at the erroneous sentence written on the blackboard. After this, Amy uses multiple CF strategies. She gives a verbal repetition of the error with a stress (where), an elongated sound (where..'s), and a slightly doubtful sound (your and from). Meanwhile, she is still staring at this erroneous sentence. This again shows that Amy usually combines a verbal CF strategy with a nonverbal CF strategy. Secondly, this combination strategy has successfully pushed other learners to provide peer corrections (from line 497 to line 502), which according to SCT is called other-regulation by Amy's learners. Thus, what happens here presents a very successful example of repetition plus nonverbal behaviour as an output-prompting CF strategy (e.g. Ellis, 2009). In the interview, before watching any relevant video clips, Amy also pointed out what happened above.

> '*I asked them where the error was. That sentence was obviously wrong in two parts, the* be *verb* (where's) *and replacing the subject with a possessive adjective* (your from). *It's* where are you from, *but he said* where's your

from…*There were learners correcting peers' errors* (e.g. lines 497-502) (INT4)'.

Then, right before Amy and I watched the above clip, she also claimed, '*I seemed to ask the learners whether there were any errors in this sentence* (INT4)'. What Amy said is very interesting. According to Amy's memory, she seemed to ask the learners to provide peer-correction. However, what actually happened was that due to Amy's use of this output-prompting CF strategy, oral repetition plus nonverbal behaviour, she successfully pushed her learners to provide peer corrections from line 497 to line 502. Amy's treatment of this grammatical error does not stop here because she continues to build scaffolding.

504	Amy	Where's your from (↓) *this, compared to*	*the coursebook* (.) *pretty different. Ok,*
		the *correct one should be* ((starting to write the correct sentence below the erroneous one))	
505	L(un)		*Where's your from* (↓)
506	L(un)	*your from*	
507	L(un)	you (.) from	
508	Amy	where	
509	Ls	Where are	you from (↓)

In SCT terms, Amy's CF strategies in line 504 take two forms of mediation, other-regulation by Amy and object-regulation by written feedback on the blackboard. Firstly, Amy repeats this erroneous sentence (Where's your from) and then expresses her thoughts on this error (*this* (.) *compared to the coursebook* (.) *pretty different*). This is followed by elicitation (*ok, the correct one should be*) and the use of written feedback on the blackboard (writing the correct sentence on the blackboard). What happens here is echoed with what the learners' said in the interviews when they talked about Amy's CF strategies. One learner in the 2nd interview said, '*Amy would write it on the blackboard. Then, she says which part is inappropriate and what should be changed* (INL2)'. The learners in the 3rd interview said that Amy would mention an individual learner, tell him what he should do, and ask him to read it again.

Next, the learners disregard Amy's elicitation and written feedback in line 504 above and try to restart the initiation in line 505 and line 506 below. In line 505, an unidentified learner translates this erroneous sentence 'where's your from' into Chinese (*where's your from*), and the learner in line 506 translates part of this sentence into Chinese (*your from*). However, in line 508, Amy does not respond to these translations. She continues to prompt the learners to produce the output she expects (Where are you from) through a combination of a recast (where) and elicitation (pausing after where). The result shows that this combination CF strategy is successful because Amy's learners say the correct sentence in line 509.

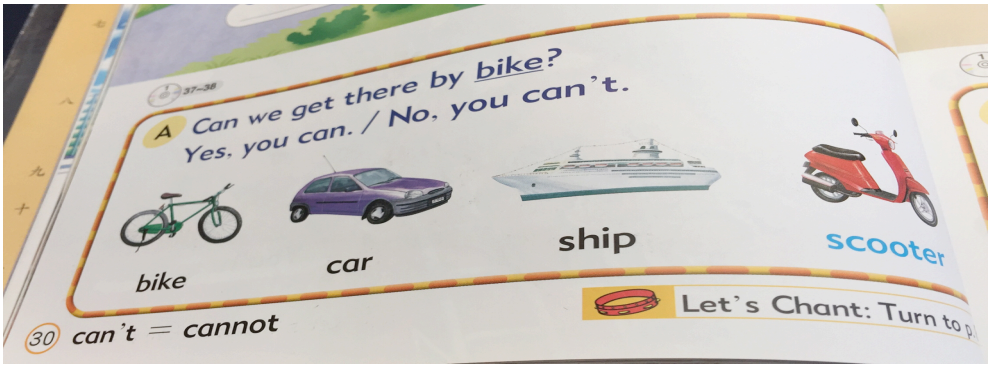
Consequently, if we consider Extract 4.5.1 and Extract 4.5.2 together, this is the most complicated CF process presented so far. Firstly, it contains both immediate CF and delayed CF. Next, when Amy corrected the phonological errors and phonics errors, she was the only person giving CF (see Sections 4.6-4.7 above). However, when Amy corrected this grammatical error, she welcomed peer corrections in Extract 4.5.2. Additionally, Amy's CF on this grammatical error (where's your from) appears to move from more implicit CF (e.g. repetition of errors) to more explicit CF from line 504 (*Ok, the correct one should be*). Next, if we consider all of the CF extracts presented so far, it has become clearer that when Amy corrected an error in class, she often combined verbal CF with nonverbal CF or combined verbal CF with exaggerated sounds. Besides, except for the coursebook's texts and her supplementary vocabulary, 'sheep', Amy only spoke Chinese or Taiwanese. Additionally, no meaningful English communication was discovered, and Amy adopted focus-on-forms instruction because she only focused on linguistic forms.

4.9 Corrective Feedback on the Translation Error in 'Get Up'

Translation is categorised as a CF strategy (Panova and Lyster, 2002); however, teachers' corrections on the learners' translation errors have never been discussed in the CF studies I have reviewed. Taiwan belongs to an EFL context, and when teachers primarily instruct in Chinese, they may correct their learners' translation errors (see also Chapter 6). Thus, I will present an example here in order to make a contribution to the existing CF literature.

In CO2, when Amy was teaching grammar as to how to convert a declarative sentence into an interrogative sentence (Can we get there by bike?) (see Figure 4.6 below), she asked her learners the Chinese translation of 'get' that they had learnt before (see Extract 4.6 below). Like Extract 4.5.2 above, the learners in the following extract could not be identified except for learner number 1, whose voice was easily recognised.

Figure 4.6 Lesson 3: Let's Learn (Vocabulary and Sentence Patterns)



Extract 4.6 (CO2)

700	Amy	*Ok, everyone, underline* get *first, the* get *on page 30* ((underlining 'get' on the blackboard)) *You write a word above it, write it in Chinese, arrive. the* get *we learnt before meant* ((writing down the Chinese translation of 'arrive'))
701	L(un)	arrive
702	L(un)	[*take* ((something)) *up*
703	L(un)	get up]
704	L1	*take* ((something)) *up*
705	L(un)	get up
706	Amy	get up *means* '*take* ((something)) *up*' (↑) ((with both a doubtful sound and a surprising sound))
707	L(un)	[*get up*
708	L1	***oh, take***,] *take*
709	L(un)	*get up*
710	Amy	**get up *means 'take'* (↑)** ((with a doubtful sound))
711	L(un)	***get up***
712	Amy	I get up *means* '*I* [*take*' (↑) ((with a slightly doubtful sound)) ((with a smiley face)) ((with a surprised face))
713	L(un)	*uh* -*oh*]

714 Amy ((a pause for almost 2 seconds)) *Number One*..(↓) ((looking at L1)), *you regress a bit* ((with a slower pace))

The word, 'get', in this sentence, 'can we get there by bus', means arrive, which is new to Amy's learners. That is why Amy asks the learners to write down its Chinese translation in line 700. Then, Amy continues to ask the learners another meaning of 'get' which they have already learnt before. The interaction after line 700 is complex. The learner in line 701 does not answer Amy's question. Instead, he shows his English abilities by saying 'arrive' in English. Next, the learner in line 702 and L1 in line 704 try to answer Amy's question and say 'get' can refer to '*take something up*'. Lastly, in line 703 and line 705, these two learners successfully produce the output Amy is expecting (get up) because Amy specified this in the interview, '*In fact, I wanted to elicit this phrase,* get up (INT3)' (see below). This also explains why Amy says 'Get up *means* "*take up*"' all of a sudden in line 706. In the interview, when Amy and I were watching this video clip, she also explained her behaviour in this extract.

> '*I know why I didn't correct it in the beginning because I said* get ((line 700)) *and he said take* ((line 704)). *It's correct actually. Take is* get. *It's take. However, I later added* get up ((line 706)). *In fact, I wanted to elicit this phrase,* get up. *Then, he still said take it up* ((line 708)), *so I corrected his error* ((from line 710)) (INT3)'.

Based on what Amy said, she does not correct L1's utterance in line 704 (*take something up*). To Amy, the error happens in line 708 when L1 claims the Chinese translation of 'get up' is '*take*'. In this extract, we can again see other learners actively participating in the interaction. For example, the learner in line 707 responds to Amy's question in line 706. The learner in line 709 offers peer CF on L1's error. However, in line 710, Amy ignores these learners' utterances and only focuses on her correction to L1's translation error in line 708, i.e. 'get up' means '*take*' in Chinese. Amy's correction strategy here is to repeat her own question in line 706, which also contains L1's error (*take*) with a forceful and doubtful sound. Then, in line 712, Amy disregards the learner's peer CF in line 711 and repeats her line 710's utterance with a doubtful sound again, but this time, Amy adds a subject (I). She also offers two nonverbal facial expressions, a smiley face followed by a surprised face. Thus, Amy builds scaffolding from only offering a verb phrase in line 710 (get up) to giving a complete sentence in line 712 (I get up). Amy's mediation of treating this translation

error ends in line 714 where she pauses first and then comments on L1's performance with exaggerated sounds.

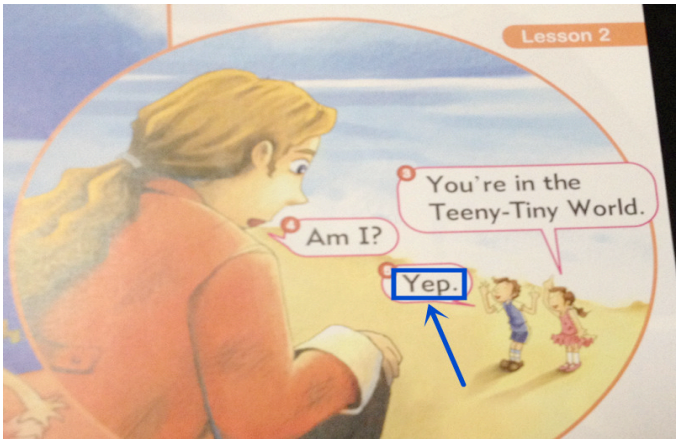
In the interview, Amy also said she used '*doubting*' to correct this error. I was trying to understand Amy's reason for using this CF strategy, she replied, '*because I felt surprised. According to L1's level,* get up *should be a very easy phrase, but he still made an error, so I was very surprised* (INT3)'. There are several indications here. Firstly, to Amy, what L1 made was probably a mistake rather than an error. Secondly, Amy again considered individual learners' differences. Thirdly, Amy understood ZPDs differ from learner to learner. This also explains why Amy said '*Number One..*(↓)*, you regress a bit*' in line 714. Lastly, Amy's verbal strategy plus a doubtful sound successfully pushed some of her learners to produce the correct Chinese translation of 'get up' (lines 707, 709, and 711). Consequently, Extract 4.6 is another example of showing Amy's massive use of Chinese in class, and meaningful English communication has not been discovered in any of the extracts presented above.

4.10 Corrective Feedback on Errors Occurring during Text Recitation

This section gives examples of Amy's corrections on the errors which occurred during text recitation activities. This unique characteristic had become significant since the time I was collecting data in Taiwan. In fact, text recitation is common in Taiwan; however, in the lessons I observed, Amy corrected her learners when they did not recite the exact text shown in the coursebook. I will explain what I mean below. Since this kind of error corrections has never been specified by any CF studies I have reviewed, I will present several examples in order to contribute to the CF literature.

At the beginning of the 2nd interview, before watching any relevant video clips, Amy specified she corrected the learners' errors '*when they were reciting the text* (.) thank you, thanks, *and then* yep? *or* yes'. What Amy said was also noted down by me when I observed this lesson. These errors and corrections happened when the learners were reciting Lesson 2's main texts (see Figures 4.7-4.8 and Extracts 4.7-4.8 below).

Figure 4.7 Lesson 2: Let's Listen (The Main Texts)



Extract 4.7 (CO1)

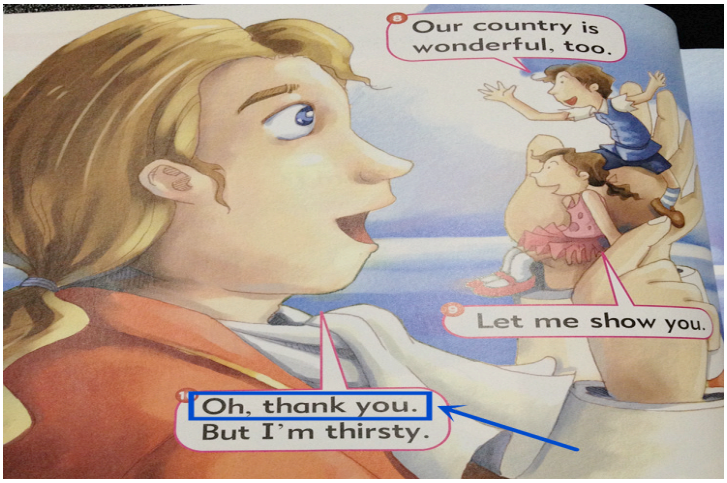
100	Ls	Where am I?
101	Amy	you're
102	Ls	You're in the Teeny-Tiny World.
103	Amy	Am I (↑)
104	Ls	Am I (↑)
105	Ls	yes
	Ls	yep
106	Amy	where
107	Ls	where are
108	L(un)	yep
109	Amy	yep, yep *or* yes.
110	L(un)	yep
111	L(un)	yep
112	Amy	yep
113	Ls	yep
114	Amy	yep, where are you from (↑)

In line 105, 'yes' is an error. Amy explained her reason in the interview. '*They needed to recite the texts, so I hope they could recite the text exactly as shown in their coursebook. Actually, these two* ((e.g. 'yes' and 'yep')) *could be swapped, but I wanted them to recall which one was used in the coursebook* (INT2)'. After this, Amy agreed she made corrections because she assumed the text in the coursebook was correct. Thus, even though Amy understands 'yes' and 'yep' are synonyms, she

still provides CF because she wants the learners to understand the one used in the coursebook is 'yep'. Amy's view here also indicates her focus on word level accuracy (yep) as well as her insistence on reciting the exact text as that is shown in the coursebook. Both of these create opportunities for her CF to take place in class (see also Extract 4.8 below).

Following the error in line 105, peer correction occurs in line 108, but Amy again ignores it and regains control of an IRF model in line 109. Firstly, Amy provides a recast (yep) in line 109, followed by an instant elicitation (yep *or* yes) attempting to elicit the correct utterance from the learners. We could also notice that in line 109, Amy said '*or*' in Chinese. This implies her preference of using Chinese in class whenever it is possible. After this, the error has been corrected successfully from line 110, so Amy moves the class on in line 114. Due to Amy's personal insistence, another example of Amy's CF on a text recitation error happens right after Extract 4.7 (see Figure 4.8 and Extract 4.8 below).

Figure 4.8 Lesson 2: Let's Listen (The Main Texts)



Extract 4.8 (CO1)

114	Amy	yep,	[Where are you from (↑) / Are you from (↑)] I'm from England. It's a wonderful country. Our country is wonderful, too. Let me show you.
115	Ls		
	Ls		[oh, thank you, / oh, (thank?).] but I'm thirsty.

116 Amy *wait,* oh, thank you *or* oh, thanks (↑)

117 Ls oh, thanks
Ls oh, thank you (.) oh, thank you

118 Amy oh, thank you *or* oh, thanks (↑)
119 Ls oh, thank you
120 Amy oh, thank you, but I'm

An error, 'oh, (thank?)', happens in line 115 because the one shown in the coursebook is 'oh, thank you'. After this, in line 116, Amy immediately uses elicitation to correct this error (*wait,* oh, thank you *or* oh, thanks). In line 117, the error remains unresolved, so Amy then uses the same strategy, an elicitation, to push the learners to correct the error in line 118 (oh, thank you *or* oh, thanks). After this, the error has been corrected successfully in line 119 (oh, thank you), so Amy moves the class on in line 120. In this exchange, we can again notice that Amy prefers to use Chinese whenever possible (line 116 and line 118).

In these two examples, Amy's use of elicitation corresponds with what she said in the interview, '*I asked them it's* thank you *or* thanks*. I asked them a question.*' I further asked the reason why she decided to use this way to correct errors. Amy replied, '*because I heard two answers. Some learners said* thanks*, and some said* thank you*. Some said* yep*, and some said* yes*. So I asked them and gave them an opportunity to re-think about it* (INT2)'. This indicates that the learners' responses had an influence on the CF strategies Amy decided to use. Actually, the same error (yes) which happened in Extract 4.7 occurred again in the 3rd lesson I observed when the learners engaged in the same activity, i.e. reciting Lesson 2's main texts. When this error happened, Amy once again interrupted the learners immediately and offered the same CF strategy through elicitation '*hey, hey, hey, was it* yep (↑) *or* yes (↑) (CO3)'. Amy's reason for offering two options was the same as the above; she further added, '*one of them* ((either 'yep' or 'yes')) *must be correct* (INT4)'.

Since Amy often corrected errors that occurred in reciting activities, I will present one more example here. In the 2nd lesson I observed, I heard Amy said, '*no* now (CO2)'. In the interview, before Amy and I watched the relevant video clip, Amy said, '*I corrected it directly* (INT3)'. I then asked Amy what error it was. Amy

replied, '*here, the coursebook is* I'm thirsty, *but they said "*I'm thirsty now*". They added one more word* (INT3)' (see Figure 4.8 above). It has become an outstanding characteristic that Amy focused on word-level accuracy. When the learners' utterances were different from the texts shown in their coursebook, Amy corrected them, which seems to limit what the learners were encouraged to say in class. Additionally, I also wanted to understand that instead of saying 'I'm thirsty *or* I'm thirsty now', why Amy's CF strategy was to say '*no* now'. Amy's explanation below shows that she considered her consideration time limitation as well as her learners' ZPD before providing CF.

> '*because they never had this kind of error before. Besides, we just recited these texts two days ago. This error didn't occur, then. Thus, I was thinking they might have said "*now*" unconsciously. Thus, to me, correcting the error directly was the most time-saving method*'.

We can notice that when Amy corrected these text recitation errors, the translation error ('get up' in Extract 4.6), and the phonological errors of 'the' (Extract 4.1 and Extract 4.2), she used the most time-saving method and corrected these errors directly and explicitly. On the other hand, when Amy corrected the phonological errors of 'ship' (Extract 4.3.2) and the grammatical error, 'where's your from', she tended to follow the notion of dynamic assessment in which she firstly identified the learners' English abilities and then used scaffolding to provide appropriate CF strategies for the learners. Thus, in SCT, it is not a learner's job to have an intake of the correct linguistic forms (e.g. 'ship' and 'where are you from'). SCT suggests a teacher should consider the learners' ZPD and then provide suitable CF to assist them in correcting their errors. Thus, language learning happens during the interaction between Amy and her learners when Amy concurrently assesses her learners' linguistic abilities and provides suitable CF (e.g. Aljaafreh and Lantolf, 1994).

4.11 Summary

The findings presented in this chapter show several indications. Firstly, the design of the coursebook focused on vocabulary, sentence patterns, and phonics, which seldom offered learners chances in practicing meaningful English communication. Secondly, Amy did not provide any supplementary material which aimed for communication, and nor did Amy's school paid attention to the examination of learners' oral

communication skills. Thirdly, when Amy taught the coursebook, she focused on text drilling (Extract 4.1 and Extract 4.2), vocabulary drilling (Extract 4.3.2), phonics drilling (Extract 4.4), text recitation (Extract 4.5.1 and Section 4.10), and word-level accuracy (Section 4.10). Fourthly, Amy predominantly spoke Chinese in class, and her English utterances were all from the coursebook's texts, with the exception of 'sheep' (Extract 4.3.2), 'I get up' (Extract 4.6), and the phonics exercise ('/flaɪ/' and '/flɪ/' in Extract 4.4). These characteristics closed down opportunities for Amy's learners to make lexical errors, created chances for them to make phonological errors and text recitation errors, and influenced the type of errors Amy attended to in the lessons I observed. Additionally, the current CF literature is framed in as well as focuses on meaning-oriented classes. This means that teachers adopt focus-on-form instruction and temporarily shift the focus to the corrections of linguistic forms when there is a communication breakdown. However, Amy's class was an extreme version of implementing focus-on-forms instruction because no meaningful English communication was discovered and Amy only corrected linguistic forms. Besides, Amy's corrections of the translation error ('get up' in Extract 4.6) and text recitation errors (Section 4.10) have never been presented in the CF studies I have reviewed. This implies that the CF traditions do not cover classroom interaction and diverse classroom data observed here.

Regarding the timing of the provision of CF, unless it was a serious error, Amy preferred to provide delayed CF after her learners finished an activity (Extract 4.2 and Extract 4.5). Amy tended to provide immediate CF on other occasions, e.g. instructing new vocabulary. Regarding Amy's CF strategies, she built scaffolding and used dynamic assessment to assist the learners in moving from their actual linguistic levels to the correct use of linguistic forms. Besides, when Amy provided CF, she often gave time for the learners to re-think the correct utterances, she usually considered individual learners' differences, and Amy understood that ZPDs vary from learner to learner. Amy also pushed the learners to give peer corrections. Amy's CF involved multiple forms of mediation, i.e. other-regulation by Amy, other-regulation by other peers, and object-regulation by written feedback on the blackboard. Additionally, Amy's CF contained verbal CF strategies, nonverbal CF strategies, the use of exaggerated sounds to assist in Amy's verbal CF strategies, and complex clusters of combining verbal CF strategies with nonverbal CF strategies.

Moreover, the same or similar errors recurred in the same lesson or in different lessons, and Amy either used the same or different CF strategies to treat these errors. Lastly, deliberate language play by Amy's learners, the learners' keenly participating in the classroom interaction with Amy or other learners, and their actively providing peer CF were also emerged from the findings. These findings signify that the CF traditions fail to account for the complex classroom interaction that is evident in Amy's class. Thus, further research into the EFL elementary classrooms in Taiwan would be necessary to establish this.

Chapter 5
Lily's class

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will present the findings of Lily's class. Like Amy's class, Lily also adopted a focus-on-forms approach, her class used the same coursebook as Amy's class, and phonological errors were also the most common type of errors she corrected. However, Lily's class also had its distinctive characteristics: focus on dialogue and sentence pattern drilling, focus on supplementary materials, and Lily's preference for using English in class. The following sections will start with the introduction to Lily's school, Lily's background, and Lily's class. After this, I will explain Lily's definition of error and views on CF, as well as illustrating the error types Lily provided CF on. Then, Lily's CF on phonological-related errors (e.g. intonation errors) and her CF on grammatical errors will be presented and analysed. Lastly, a summary of Lily's CF timing (either immediate or delayed), CF strategies (e.g. the use of written feedback), and the factors which had influenced her CF timing and CF strategies will be explained.

5.2 Lily's School and Lily's Background

Lily's school was located in a rural township in Kinmen County, formed by a group of small islands. There was only one class per year at Lily's school, so only six classes in total at this school. Lily had a Bachelor's degree in Children's English Education in Taiwan, after which she worked as a newly qualified teacher for 1 year in Taiwan before she did her Master's degree in TESOL in the US. Then, she started to teach at the school where I collected the data. It was Lily's 3rd year there when I observed her lessons.

5.3 Lily's Class

In Lily's class, there were only 5 learners (i.e. 1 boy and 4 girls) but two teachers (Lily and the native-speaking teacher, Jack) (see Chapter 3). I observed 4 lessons that Lily taught CO2 and CO4 solely and Lily and Jack co-taught CO1 and CO3. I also

interviewed Lily 5 times, and conducted 2 learner interviews (see Chapter 3). The coursebook used in Lily's class was the same as the one used in Amy's class (see Section 4.3); however, Lily and Jack incorporated supplementary materials, i.e. the PowerPoint slides designed by Jack, a worksheet activity designed by Lily, and a video from the Internet. Besides, Lily taught the lessons in the medium of English, and she scarcely spoke Chinese in class. Like Amy's class, these characteristics of Lily's class appear to influence the errors Lily's learners made in class and thus affected the error types Lily corrected in class.

5.4 Lily's Definition of Error and Lily's View on Corrective Feedback

Due to the central focus of this study, teachers' CF, in the 1st interview, I firstly asked Lily about her definition of an error (see Extract 5.1 below).

Extract 5.1 (INT1)

57	Lily	*According to my teaching experience, errors might be lexical errors, pronunciation errors, or the use (.) hmm, grammar errors.*
58	R	*Could you explain more about what you mean by lexical errors?*
59	Lily	*Er, for example, a learner wants to use a word, but he uses the wrong meaning (.) uses another word.*
60	R	*oh, use the wrong vocabulary.*
61	Lily	*Yes.*
62	R	*Oh, pronunciation errors are clear (.) pronounce it incorrectly.*
63	Lily	*Yes.*
64	R	*and what else did you say, then?*
65	Lily	*grammar errors*
66	R	*Hmm.*
67	Lily	*It doesn't influence the meaning, but he uses it incorrectly.*
68	R	*Oh, we understand it, but the grammar is wrong.*
69	Lily	*Yes.*

After the above extract, Lily offered her definition of error correction that when the learners made the above three kinds of errors, she should correct them and tell the learners what was correct. Thus, what Lily said matches Brown's (2016) claim about the error types CF studies have examined. In the interview, I continued my discussion about CF with Lily (see Extract 5.2 below).

Extract 5.2 (INT1)

100	R	*Ok, so do you think you correct learners' errors during a lesson?*

101	Lily	*Hmm, yes.*
102	R	*Hmm, so do you correct all of the errors you just mentioned?*
103	Lily	*I feel, er, these three are the most common errors I have seen, hmm.*
104	R	*Hmm.*
105	Lily	*I correct almost all of them, but sometimes, I opt to ignore pronunciation errors. Lexical errors are rather serious. They influence communication, so I certainly correct them.*
106	R	*Ok, so to you, you certainly correct lexical errors which influence our understanding. Then, you may correct grammar errors, and the last one is pronunciation errors.*
107	Lily	*Hmm, to me, pronunciation errors are more important than grammar errors* ((while laughing)) (.) ((laughing)).
108	R	*Oh, are they?*
109	Lily	*Yes, I think to children, pronunciation is very important.*
110	R	*Hmm.*
111	Lily	*If you pronounce a word incorrectly, it may sometimes influence understanding. I sometimes don't correct grammar errors.*
112	R	*Oh, I see.*
113	Lily	*Yes.*

Here, we understand that Lily is quite prepared to correct oral errors in class. To her, the top priority is to correct errors that have interfered with understanding. Therefore, lexical errors are the most important errors to be corrected, which is followed by phonological errors and grammatical errors. In line 105 above, Lily says she does not correct all of the phonological errors, so in the interview, I asked her to elaborate on this (see below).

> '*Sometimes, I don't correct phonics with irregular rules. For example,* /sp/, /sb/, /es/, /pi:/. If the learners mispronounce /sbpi:k/ ((speak)) as /spi:k/, *in fact, I don't correct it immediately, but I would insist on pronouncing the correct one to let them listen to it. At that moment, I may not tell them they have pronounced it incorrectly. Later, I may find another opportunity to explain it to them.* (INT1)'

It is interesting to find out a conflict between Lily's claims '*I don't correct it immediately*' and '*I would insist on pronouncing the correct one to let them listen to it*' because the latter one is indeed a classic form of CF, recasting. Next, in line 111 above, Lily says she sometimes does not correct grammatical errors, so in the interview, I asked her when she decided not to correct grammatical errors. Lily responded, '*plural nouns* ((Laughing)) or *er,* she takes (INT1)'. Thus, Lily might ignore irregular pronunciation errors (e.g. mispronouncing '/sbpi:k/' ((speak)) as '/spi:k/') or grammatical errors like forgetting to add an 's' on plural nouns or third person singular verbs (she 'take'). Her responses here seem to indicate her consistent

belief that errors that did not affect comprehension could be ignored. Finally, in the interview, I wanted to understand if Lily thought what she said in the interview matched what she did in class or not. She responded that she used what she said above to correct learners' errors, with exceptions. Lily explained, '*depending on the learners' responses, I would decide whether to correct errors immediately or not* (INT1)'. She added, '*about those errors I said I would ignore, if the learners make the same errors for too many times, I feel that they should know the correct answers* (INT1)'.

Lily has responded to the other focus of my research, i.e. 'when' teachers correct errors. I asked Lily which one was better, correcting errors immediately or later; Lily replied, '*I feel correcting errors immediately is better…this could let the learners repeat the correct answer immediately. This may make a better impression on them. They may forget what they've said 10 minutes later* (INT1)'. Then, I asked her, '*how about two or three minutes later?*'. Lily replied, '*It's fine to delay the correction until 2-3 minutes later. I would see if the learners have the same errors or not…If not, I may ignore these errors…If the learners have made the same errors, this means that they may be unclear about this concept, so I would say it again* (INT1)'.

Then, in the interview, I continued to ask Lily's opinions about the relationship between learners' self-esteem and the timing of providing CF (either immediate or delayed). Lily replied,

> '*I'd see learners' reaction. If they've got high self-esteem and I correct them immediately, their faces fall instantly. Thus, I would provide slightly delayed correction and tell them with a friendly attitude* ((laughing))*...I wouldn't point out who make the errors* (INT1)'.

In general, Lily felt that correcting errors instantly was better for the learner's English language learning. However, delaying corrections until 2-3 minutes later was fine to her because she could understand if the same error had been made by more than one learner or not. Besides, the timing of providing CF as well as her CF method might also depend on the learners' personalities.

5.5 Error Types Lily Provided Corrective Feedback On

Like Amy's class, phonological errors were also the most frequent type of error Lily corrected in class. However, different from Amy's class, in Lily's class, some of the phonological errors were connected with words that the learners had not learnt yet. In the interview, Lily specified that her learners did not know these words' Chinese meanings. Besides, like what Lily said above, she did not provide CF on all of the phonological errors her learners had made. Lily also corrected intonation errors (e.g. 'Do you have a fever, too?') because to her, intonation was very important. Lily's correction of grammatical errors and lexical errors were also spotted in the CO data. However, Lily and I did not discuss her corrections of the lexical errors in the interviews, so these CF episodes will not be presented on the basis of my criteria (see Chapter 3). Lily's corrections of these types of errors generally match what she said in the 1st interview (see Section 5.4 above). Possible reasons that resulted in Lily's corrections on these errors are her focus-on-forms approach, her focus on word, sentence, and dialogue drilling, the extensive use of supplementary materials, the way the coursebook was used in class, and Lily's extensive use of English in class.

5.6 Corrective Feedback on Phonological-Related Errors

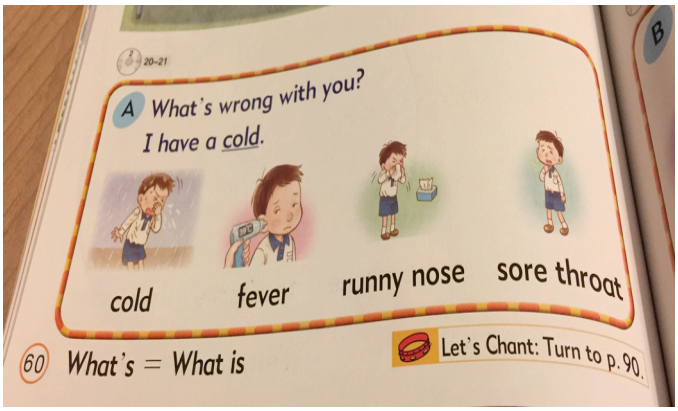
From this section, I will start to present and analyse the classroom interaction extracts around CF in Lily's class. Lily's corrections of phonological errors were not only specified by Lily (see Section 5.4) but also pointed out by Lily's learners. In the interviews, after I asked the learners how Lily corrected their errors, they pointed out Lily's correction on phonological errors: '*she said our pronunciation is inaccurate. We have to revise it* (INL1)' and '*the teacher would say where we don't pronounce well. Then, correct it* (INL2)'. Thus, I will start with Lily's CF on phonological errors.

5.6.1 Sore Throat

At the beginning of CO1, when Lily was reviewing the coursebook's vocabulary (see Figure 5.1 below), she and the native-speaking teacher, Jack, spent over 1 minute's time correcting a phonological error in the phrase 'sore throat'. The same error reoccurred later on in CO1 as well as in CO2 and CO3. The following will present

examples of Lily's corrections of this phonological error from this over 1 minute's CF episode (see Extracts 5.3.1-5.3.2).

Figure 5.1 Lesson 5: Let's Learn (Vocabulary and Sentence Patterns)



Firstly, in the interview, after Lily watched the video clip from this over one minute's correction on the pronunciation of 'sore throat', I asked her to explain the correction process (see below).

> '*They could pronounce* sore *at the very least, couldn't they? However, they couldn't pronounce* throat *at all because it's difficult to pronounce. Besides, I think I only taught them this vocabulary item once* (INT2)'

To an extent, what Lily said above matches Extract 5.3.1 below, i.e. from line 36 to line 48.

Extract 5.3.1 (CO1)

25	Lily	four
26	L(un)	/ˋrʌn..ˋni/
27	Ls	/ˈrʌnɪŋ/ ((Jack points at 'sore throat' on one learner's coursebook))
28	Lily	**four** ((laughter))
29	Ls	/ʃ/
30	Lily	number four ((Jack points at 'sore throat' on the 2nd learner's coursebook))
31	L(un)	/s/../s/.. /lɪn/
32	Jack	number four ((pointing at 'sore throat' on the 3rd learner's coursebook))
33	L(un)	/ʃ/
34	L(un)	/s/
35	Lily	((Making the sound of coughing and touching her throat)) What's

this (↑) ((touching her throat)) er ((touching her throat)) ((Jack points at 'sore throat' on the 4th and the 5th learner's coursebook))

After Lily says 'four' in line 25, the learners should say 'sore throat' because they have already learnt this phrase. Somehow, the learners are saying '/ˋrʌn..ˋni/' (line 26) or '/ˈrʌnɪŋ/' (line 27) which refers to the 3rd item of vocabulary (running nose) Lily just reviewed before Extract 5.3.1 (see Figure 5.1 above). Then, Jack starts to point at 'sore throat' on the learners' coursebooks (lines 27, 30, 32, and 35) and repeats the question, 'Number four' (line 32), to draw the learners' attention to this phrase, 'sore throat'. Similarly, Lily also repeats her question 'Four' (line 28) and 'Number four' (line 30) and uses body language (lines 35, 41, and 42) to elicit the correct pronunciation of 'sore throat' from the learners. With the assistance of Lily and Jack, the learners have tried to pronounce 'sore throat' from line 29 (see above and below); however, they are still making different kinds of errors. Some of these errors are barely intelligible, e.g. '/ʃ/' (line 29 and line 33), '/s/../s/../lɪn/' (line 31), '/ru/' (line 37), and '/ni/' (line 42).

36	L(un)	/sɔː
37	L(un)	r/ /ru/
38	L(un)	/sɔː
39	Jack	r/ /sɔːr/
40	Lily	/sɔːr/
41	Jack	/rəʊ/ ((Lily touches her throat))
42	L(un)	/ni/ ((Lily touches her throat))
43	L(un)	/θrəʊ/
44	L(un)	/sɔːr/
45	L(un)	/θrəʊ/
46	Ls	(/bɜːʳ?/)
47	T(un)	Huh?
48	L(un)	/sɔːr/
49	Lily	/sɔːr/
50	L(un)	(/səʊl?/)
51	L(un)	/θru/
52	L(un)	((Laughter))

53 L(un) /təʊ/
54 Lily (/sɔːr/?) /swor/

55 Ls /swor/

56 Lily /sɔːrt/
57 L(un) *(Very?)* *(embarrassing?)*

Similar to what Lily said in the interview, in the above extract, the learners seem to self-correct the phonological errors in 'sore' and start to pronounce it correctly (lines 36, 38, 44, and 48); however, they are still making phonological errors in 'throat' ('/θrəʊ/' in line 43 and line 45; '/θru/' in line 51) or are unable to pronounce 'throat' (e.g. lines 36, 38, 44, and 48).

In the interview, Lily also explained her correction process from line 58 (see below and Extract 5.3.2).

> '*I wrote it down…because it has* letters 't', 'h', and 'r'. *It's very difficult, isn't it? Then, I wrote the word from the beginning, er, the vowels, and then I added the consonant, I added them steadily to let them say the whole word* (INT2)'

Extract 5.3.2 (CO1)
58 Jack **sour** (↑) ((Lily writes down letter t and letter h on the blackboard))
59 L(un) ((Laughter))

From all of the CO extracts presented so far, it can be noticed that in Lily's class, the provision of CF is not as straightforward as those usually indicated in CF studies. Firstly, the learners have been making two kinds of phonolgoical errors, either 'sore' or 'throat'. Secondly, there are two teachers, Lily and Jack, co-teaching at the same time. Thus, we can see that in line 58, Jack and Lily focus on different errors. Although it was not heard when I transcribed the data, Jack seems to hear some saying 'sour'. Thus, he repeats 'sour' with a loud, rising, and interrogative intonation in line 58. At the same time, Lily focuses on the other phonological error (throat) and writes down letter 't' and letter 'h' on the blackboard (see also the above interview quote). In line 59, an unidentified learner appears to respond to Jack's verbal CF by laughter, but none of the learners pays attention to Lily's writing on the blackboard (letter 't' and letter 'h').

60 Lily this one ((looking at letter ‘t’ and letter ‘h’ and preparing to underline these two letters))
61 Jack no ((shaking his head))

62 Lily /tiː/, /eɪtʃ/ ((underlining letter ‘t’ and letter ‘h’))

For this reason, in line 60 below, Lily draws the learners’ attention by looking at these two letters (‘t’ and ‘h’), as well as trying to elicit the correct pronunciation (/θ/) by saying ‘this one’. In SLA terms, Lily provides an immediate verbal strategy (elicitation) and nonverbal strategies (writing on the blackboard and gaze at her writing). In SCT terms, Lily’s error treatment process takes two forms: other-regulation by Lily as well as object-regulation through written prompts on the blackboard. While Lily is providing CF in line 60, we can see an overlapped utterance from Jack, who seems to respond to his own CF in line 58 by shaking his head and saying ‘no’ in line 61. It is interesting to discover that these two teachers have only focused on their own corrections from line 58 to line 61. In line 62, Lily continues to build scaffolding through a combination of a verbal strategy (saying ‘/tiː/’ and ‘/eɪtʃ/’) and a nonverbal strategy (underlining letter ‘t’ and letter ‘h’).

63 L(un) /ð/
64 L(un) /ð/

65 L(un) /ð/ ((Lily writes down letter r on the blackboard))
66 L(un) /b/ ((Lily writes down letter r on the blackboard))

67 Jack /ð/

As we can see, Lily’s strategies until line 62 have finally attracted the learners’ and Jack’s attention because they start to say the pronunciation of letter ‘t’ and letter ‘h’ from line 63. However, all of them make the same error (/ð/) because in ‘throat’, letter ‘t’ and letter ‘h’ is pronounced as ‘/θ/’.

68 L(un) /ðrə/
69 L(un) /ðʳ/

70 Lily /ð (.) rə/ ((Writing down letter ‘o’ and letter ‘a’ on the blackboard))
71 L(un) (/ð/?)

In line 70, Lily also makes a phonolgical error (/ð/), but she continues to build scaffolding through written prompts on the blackboard (writing down letter ‘o’ and letter ‘a’).

72	L(un)	/θ (.) ʳ/
73	Lily	((pointing at letter ‘o’ and letter ‘a’ on the blackboard)) /əʊ/ ((still pointing at letter ‘o’ and letter ‘a’))
74	L(un)	/əʊ/

An unidentifed learner in line 72 produces the sound of letter ‘t’ and letter ‘h’ accurately (/θ/), but none of the learners says the sound of letter ‘o’ and letter ‘a’ correctly (/əʊ/). Thus, Lily gives another immediate CF in line 73. Firstly, Lily points at letter ‘o’ and letter ‘a’ on the blackboard. Then, she combines this finger pointing with a recast (saying the correct sound of letter ‘o’ and letter ‘a’ – ‘/əʊ/’). After this, an unidentified learner successfully pronounces ‘/əʊ/’ accuratly in line 74.

75	L(un)	/əʊ/	((Lily points at letters ‘t’, ‘h’, ‘r’, ‘o’, and ‘a’ on the blackboard))
76	L(un)	/səʊ/	((Lily points at letters ‘t’, ‘h’, ‘r’, ‘o’, and ‘a’)
77	L(un)	/θrəʊ/	((Lily points at letters ‘t’, ‘h’, ‘r’, ‘o’, and ‘a’)
78	L(un)	/səʊ/	((Lily points at letters ‘t’, ‘h’, ‘r’, ‘o’, and ‘a’))
79	Lily	/θ (.) rəʊ (.) t/	((firstly pointing at letters ‘t’, ‘h’, ‘r’, ‘o’, and ‘a’ and then writing down letter ‘t’ on the blackboard while saying /rəʊ (.) t/))

Lily continues to build scaffolding from line 75. In lines 75-78, Lily tries to elicit the correct pronunicaiton of letters ‘t’, ‘h’, ‘r’, ‘o’, and ‘a’ (/θrəʊ/) from the learners through finger pointing at these written letters on the blackboard. The result shows that one of the learners pronounce it correctly (‘/θrəʊ/’ in line 77) but two of them still make a phonolgoical error (‘/səʊ/’ in line 76 and line 78). Thus, Lily continues to provide CF strategies in line 79. Firstly, she uses a recast to read aloud the whole word, ‘/θ (.) rəʊ (.) t/’, with two pauses in between, enabling the learners to hear the pronounciation clearer. Lily’s verbal CF here is combined with two nonverbal CF moves. She firstly points at her writing on the blackboard (letters ‘t’, ‘h’, ‘r’, ‘o’, and ‘a’) and then writes down letter ‘t’.

80 L(un) /rəʊ/ ((Lily puts down the piece of chalk))

81 L(un) /rəʊt/ /rəʊt/ ((Lily puts down the piece of chalk))
82 Lily throat

83 L(un) /θr əʊ/

84 L(un) /r (.) əʊ/ (.) /rəʊ (.) t/
85 Jack /rəʊ (.) t/

86 Lily throat
87 Jack throat ((Lily moves towards one learner and uses both of her hands to touch that learner's throat))

Following Lily's CF in line 79, the learners still make phonolgoical errors ('/rəʊ/' in lines 80-81), so Lily provides CF through a recast in line 82 (throat). After this, the learners still produce incorrect utteraces in lines 83-84 ('/θrəʊ/', '/r (.) əʊ/', and '/rəʊ (.) t/'). Thus, Lily offers the same CF strategy again in line 86 (throat) as well as a nonverbal strategy in line 87 by touching a learner's throat.

Lily's behaviour above matches what she said in the interview as she focuses her CF on 'throat' and steadily write the letters down from the beginning (letters 't', 'h', and 'r' from line 58 to line 66) to the vowels (letter 'o' and letter 'a' in line 70) and the consonant (letter 't' in line 79). We can also notice that Jack does not engage in the classroom interaction from line 68 to line 84, so he lets Lily guide the class and provide CF for the learners. As a whole, Lily's CF on this phonolgoical error in 'throat' combines multiple verbal CF strategies with multiple nonverbal CF strategies and use two forms of mediation, i.e. other-regulation by herself and object-regulation by writing on the blackboard.

Lily's CF behaviour also coincides with what her learners said in the interviews when I asked them how they knew Lily was correcting their errors or how Lily corrected their errors in class. Learners from both interviews mentioned that Lily would '*underline syllables*' of a word and '*read aloud the pronunciation of each syllable*'. The learners in INL1 further said that after reading aloud separate syllables of a word, they would pronounce the whole word together. Similarly, the learners in

INL2 also said that Lily might ask them the phonetic sound of a letter or repeatedly pronounce the correct sound.

In CO1, this phonological error still happens after line 87, as well as reoccurring later on in CO1, CO2, and CO3. Thus, in the interview, I asked Lily if she thought of changing her correction methods. Lily replied,

> *'At first, I was surprised that they forgot how to pronounce sore throat…I was surprised, so I was thinking if they didn't know which vocabulary to read, then…That's why my correction process was slower at the beginning. Later, I knew they really forgot this pronunication, so I started to write it down on the blackboard…Indeed, I didn't expect that they forgot it. If I'd known it at the beginning…I might have written it down on the blackboard right from the start* (INT2)'

What happened in Extracts 5.3.1-5.3.2 as well as Lily's above claims have two implications. Firstly, Lily's CF strategies were similar to dynamic assessment because her error treatment started from more implicit ones (e.g. 'number four') to more explicit CF (e.g. writing down the letters and gradually pronouce the whole word). Besides, Lily's correction methods were based on the learners' responses. This is again similar to Poehner's claim that interventionist dynamic assessment allows a teacher to identify the learners' actual level and then to provide appropriate mediation forms (e.g. object-regulation through written prompts on the blackboard). The second implication is that Lily did not fully understand her learners' ZPD in Extract 5.3.1 because she was surprised that her learners were unable to pronounce 'throat' correctly.

5.6.2 Should

When I reviewed the 4 lessons I observed, even though Lily spoke English the great majority of time in class, there was hardly any meaningful English communication. Instead, Lily spent much time on word drilling (e.g. 'sore throat'), sentence drilling (e.g. Section 5.7), and dialogue drilling (e.g. the extracts presented below). As illustrated in Section 5.5 above, Lily's learners made phonolgoical errors sometimes because they did not the Chinese meaning of a word. Thus, in this section, I will give examples of Lily's corrections on this type of error when the learners were practicing the 'Patient and Doctor Practice' dialogue (see below).

5.6.2.1 The Supplementary Materials

In Lily's class, the majority of the class time throughout COs 1-3 was spent on supplementary materials. Lily explained her reason for this:

> '*because the content of the coursebook is very limited. Don't you think there are only few sentence patterns in the book? Besides, it is not practical, either…both me and Jack sometimes feel that the coursebook is too boring, so we would do something fun* (INT2)'.

Thus, Jack designed supplementary materials which included both the coursebook's content and extra material. Lily also sought a video from the Internet in relation to the supplementary materials Jack designed, as well as designing a worksheet for spelling practices. This 'Patient and Doctor Practice' Dialogue is the supplementary materials Jack designed (see Table 5.1 below). Even though it is a dialogue between a doctor and a patient, the class was not engaged in meaningful communication as they only substituted nouns of the dialogue for other nouns the learners had learnt (e.g. substituting 'stomachache' for 'headache'). In CO1, the vocabulary and sentence patterns the learners learnt were being applied to this dialogue. In the second half of CO2, Lily firstly reviewed the vocabulary and sentence patterns of CO1 again, after which she started to introduce this dialogue. The class firstly practised the dialogue together, after which the individual learners took turns to go to the front of the class and played the role of a doctor. In CO2, the homework Lily assigned was also about this dialogue. In the first half of CO3, all of the learners firstly practised the dialogue together, after which the learners practised this dialogue in pairs.

Table 5.1 The 'Patient and Doctor Practice' Dialogue

Patient: Hello, doctor. Doctor: Hello, patient. What's wrong with you? Patient: I don't feel good. I have a stomachache. Doctor: How long have you had a stomachache? Patient: I have had stomachache for 3 days. Doctor: You should take medicine for 1 week. Patient: Thank you, doctor. Doctor: You're welcome.

5.6.2.2 Lily's Corrective Feedback on 'Should'

When Lily's learners practised the 'Patient and Doctor Practice' Dialogue together, in pairs, or individually, they often made phonological errors in 'patient', 'long', 'should', and 'medicine'. In the second learner interview, they also specified that Lily corrected their phonological errors in 'patient' and 'medicine'. In this section, I will focus on the analysis of Lily's corrections on 'should' because this error occurred from CO1 to CO3.

After teaching as well as reviewing the vocabulary and sentence patterns that would be applied to this dialogue in both CO1 and CO2, Lily's learners started to read aloud this dialogue for the first time (see Extract 5.4 below).

Extract 5.4 (CO2)

((Lily pointed at the PowerPoint slide all the time, as well as mouthing this dialogue while her learners were reading it.))

934 Lily *Ok, let's read it once.*
935 Ls Hello, doctor. Hello,

936 Lily /pe [../
937 Ls pa] tient

938 Lily Wha [t's
939 Ls What's] wrong with you? I don't feel good.

I have a /ˈstʌmə/ (.) /keɪ/. How [long /le:/] have you had a

[stomachache /ˈstʌmə/ (.) /keɪ/] I have [had /ə/] /ˈstʌmə/ (.) /keɪ/ for 3 days.

You [(?) take /ʃ/ (.) /ʃʊr/]

There are several errors here, i.e. mispronouncing 'long' as '/le:/', 'stomachache' as '/ˈstʌmə/ (.) /keɪ/', and 'should' as '/ʃʊr/'. The learners stop when they once again encounter a difficulty in pronouncing 'should' in line 939, so Lily immediately treat this phonological error in line 940 and line 942 below.

940 Lily ok, [this one
941 L(un) You] ((pointing at the word, 'you', on the PowerPoint slide))

942 Lily [You should] [take] [medicine for one week.]

943 Ls [You [/ʃʊr/ /ʃɔl/]] [take] [[Medicine /med/ /ɜ:/] for one week.]

[/sæŋk/ (Thank?)] you, doctor. You're [welcome. /ˈwelkən/.]

In line 940, Lily points at the word, 'you', on the PowerPoint slide and concurrently provides a verbal strategy (this one) which is called 'elicitation' and used to prompt the output from the learners in SLA terms. However, instead of giving her learners an opportunity to produce a correct pronunciation of 'should', Lily provides an instant recast in line 942 by chorusing 'you should' with her learners. During this co-reading, the learners still make phonological errors in line 943 ('/ʃʊr/' and '/ʃɔl/'), but Lily does not offer further CF; she moves the class on. In the interview, when I asked Lily why she did not correct these phonological errors in line 943 ('/ʃʊr/' and '/ʃɔl/'), she replied, '*I felt the learners' pronunciation was already like the correct one, so I didn't correct them* (INT3)'.

Likewise line 393, there are other phonological errors in line 943 which Lily does not correct, i.e. the incorrect pronunciations of 'medicine', 'thank', and 'welcome'. In the interview, Lily said she did not hear the error, '/ˈwelkən/'; she also said she probably would not correct this kind of error. To Lily, these similar kinds of errors (e.g. mispronouncing 'arm' as '/a:n/') were minor, so '*it didn't matter…because the learners all knew their meanings and this wasn't a key point, either…I went through them quickly* (INT3)'. This matches Lily's other claims in today's lesson that '*there're some phonological errors, but I didn't correct them…these kinds of* minor errors (INT3)' and '*I deliberately (.) not correct the error because I felt I could understand what the learners had said* (INT3)', as well as what she said in Section 5.4 that she corrected phonological errors that intervened in understanding.

After Extract 5.4, Lily said, 'I'm the doctor, and you are the patient (CO2)'; she played the role of the doctor in the dialogue, and her learners acted as the patient. In this dialogue, it was the doctor who said 'should', so Lily's learners did not have an

opportunity to make an error in 'should'. After this exercise, Lily said, 'Ok, now, let's change. Who wants to be a doctor? (CO2)'; each learner then took turns to stand in the front of the classroom to play the role of the doctor. Meanwhile, the rest of the learners played the role of the patient. This means that each of the learners had to say 'should' once when they acted as a doctor. Thus, Lily opened up room for these individual learners to either show their abilities to pronounce 'should' accurately or make an error in 'should'. The CO extracts show that none of the five learners pronounced 'should' correctly. In CO data, Lily corrected the first learner immediately (see Extract 5.3) and provided both immediate and delayed correction for the second learner (see Extracts 5.4a-5.4b). The third learner was corrected by her peer, and the last two learners' errors were not corrected. This generally matches the interview data that Lily agreed she corrected some learners' errors immediately but provided delayed CF for the male learner, David (see Extract 5.6.2). I asked Lily why there were different correction strategies here. She firstly specified that '*it depended on the learners. Some learners didn't mind being corrected directly by me, but some learners' face fell instantly* (INT3)' (see also Section 5.4 above). She further explained later that she read aloud the first word of a sentence for one individual learner because '*she was the learner who had the least confidence in this class*'. It seems that Lily adopted dynamic assessment and understood individual learners' ZPD so that the mediation by her could better suit individual learners' needs. This inference is supported by one of the learners who specified that '*after all, Lily has been teaching us since the 4th grade* (INL2)'.

During our discussions, Lily gave other reasons, which will be specified below alongside the CO extracts. The following extract relates to the first learner, Mandy (L(M) below), who played the role of the doctor.

Extract 5.5 (CO2)

980	L(un)	Hello, Doctor.
981	Ls	Hello, Doctor.
982	Lily	I heard ((laughing))
983	L(M)	Hello, Patient. What's wrong with you (↑)
984	Ls	I don't feel good. I have a (stomachache. /ˈstʌmə/ (.) /keɪ/.)
985	L(un)	*don't come here*

986 L(M) How long have you had /lə/ /ˈstʌməˌkeɪ/ (↑) ((making two errors, /lə/ and /ˈstʌməˌkeɪ/))

987 Ls I have a (stomachache / /ˈstʌmə/ (.) /keɪ/) for three days.

988 L(M) you ((looking at Lily))
989 Lily should ((speaking quietly))

In line 988, it seems that Mandy does not know how to pronounce 'should', so she stops after she says 'you'. At the same time, Mandy seeks help from her teacher, Lily, who then says 'should' with a quiet voice in line 989.

990 L(M) /ʃɔ:r/ (.) take ((looking at Lily))
991 Lily medicine ((speaking quietly))
992 L(M) medicine for one week.
993 Ls Thank you, doctor.
994 L(M) You're /ˈwelkən/.
995 Lily ((Laughing)) Ok, next one. Doctor.

Despite of Lily's assistance in line 989, Mandy still makes a phonological error in 'should' in line 990 (/ʃɔ:r/). However, Lily does not correct her error. In the interview, Lily gave two reasons for not providing CF here:

> '*because it's the first learner (.) I might think that maybe this was this learner's own problem. However, if the 3rd learner still pronounces it incorrectly, I may say that word again* (INT3)'

> '*I felt it's ok, so I skipped it. I didn't want to correct it immediately* (INT3)'

Besides, even though Mandy does not make an error in 'should' in line 988, Lily's strategy in line 989 (speaking 'should' quietly) may be one of the CF strategies she used in class. In the interview, when I discussed her CF strategies for David (see Extract 5.6.1 below), Lily mentioned that she might have mouthed the correct answer to David in line 1028 even though her voice was heard when I transcribed the CO data. In the second learner interview, the learners also said that one of Lily's CF strategies was to use mouth to read the correct answer.

After Mandy, the second learner, David (L(D) below), came to the front of the classroom and played the role of the doctor.

Extract 5.6.1 (CO2)

1025 Ls Hello, Doctor.
1026 L(D) Hello (.) ((looking at Lily))
1027 L(un) patient (.) [patient ((David looking at Lily))
1028 Lily [patient ((David looking at Lily))
1029 L(D) patient. What's wrong with you (↑)

Similar to Mandy in Extract 5.3, this learner, David, also stops and looks at Lily when he does not seem to know how to pronounce 'patient' (lines 1026-1028). After Lily's assistance in line 1028, David pronounces 'patient' correctly in line 1029.

1030 Ls I don't feel good. I have a stomachache.
1031 L(D) how
1032 L(un) long ((speaking quietly))
1033 L(D) how /'leɪn/
1034 L(un) have you had
1035 L(D) have you had a /ˈstʌməˌkeɪ/ (↑)
1036 Ls I have had /ˈstʌmə/ (.) /keɪ/ for three days.
1037 L(D) you
1038 L(un) [/ʃʊ/
1039 L(un) [should ((speaking quietly))
1040 L(D) you /ʃɔ:r/ take /maɪ/

There are several errors in the above extract, including mispronouncing 'long' as '/'leɪn/' in line 1033, mispronouncing 'stomachache' as '/ˈstʌməˌkeɪ/' and '/ˈstʌmə/ (.) /keɪ/' in line 1035 and line 1036 respectively, mispronouncing 'should' as '/ʃʊ/' and '/ʃɔ:r/' in line 1038 and line 1040 respectively, and being unable to pronounce 'medicine' correctly ('/maɪ/' in line 1040).

In line 1037, it seems that David does not know the correct pronunciation of 'should', either. However, unlike Mandy, who stops after she says 'you' and concurrently seeks help from Lily in line 988 above, in this exchange, David just stops after he says 'you', without seeking help from anyone in class (line 1037). After this, two unidentified learners offer assistance in line 1038 (/ʃʊ/) and line 1039 (should). David does not seem to hear these and then says another erroneous utterance in line 1040, '/ʃɔ:r/'. Nonetheless, Lily does not respond to David's error (see below).

1041 L(un) /mi:/../mi:/ ((speaking quietly))
1042 L(D) for /aɪ/ week

1043 L(un) oh, my [God. / Thank] ((all speaking quietly)).
1044 Ls [Thank] you, doctor.

1045 L(D) You're /ˈwelkən/.
1046 Lily ((Laughing)) ok, thank you, Doctor ((clapping her hands)).

In this extract, David makes several phonological errors. Lily explained why she does not correct these errors:

> '*I was thinking of correcting these errors later because other learners might have these problems (.) because David's already the second learner. I'd like to wait. I didn't want to always correct the error immediately because I would have interrupted their conversation. I felt this wasn't good* (INT3)'

For the above reason, Lily provided delayed CF after David finished his role-playing activity. Nonetheless, in this delayed CF, Lily only corrected two of David's phonological errors, 'medicine' and 'should'. The reason might relate to the frequency of the errors because these two errors were specified by Lily in the interview when I discussed this role-play activity with her and asked her, '*To you, which of the words the learners kept pronouncing incorrectly?* (INT3)'. In Extract 5.6.2 below, I only present Lily corrections of 'should'.

Extract 5.6.2 (CO2)
((Lily points at the PowerPoint slide from line 1072 to line 1075 and smiles slightly from line 1072 to line 1076.))
1072 Lily and this word, should

1073 Ls [should / L(un) /ʃɜ:d/]

1074 Lily should

1075 Ls [should / L(un) /ʃɜ:/] ((The girl in line 1073 makes another phonolgical error.))

1076 Lily ok, next doctor

In this exchange, when Lily provides delayed CF on David's phonological error ('/ʃɔ:r/' in line 1040 of Extract 5.6.1), she uses scaffolding: one nonverbal CF move and two verbal CF moves in line 1072 and then one nonverbal CF move and one

verbal CF move in line 1074. In line 1072, Lily firstly draws the attention of learners to 'should' by pointing at the PowerPoint slide and saying 'and this word'. Lily could push her learners to produce the output here; however, like her behaviour in Extract 5.4, She immediately provides another CF move by recast (should) while she is still pointing at the PowerPoint slide in line 1072. After Lily's corrections in line 1072, a phonological error is still made by an unidentified girl in line 1073 (/ʃɜ:d/), so Lily provides CF through recast again in line 1074 (should). However, the same girl still makes another phonological error in line 1075 (/ʃɜ:/), but Lily moves the class on and does not offer further corrections. Lily's CF strategies here are similar to what the learners said in the interview that one of Lily's CF strategies was to '*read the word first* (INL1)'.

In the interview, Lily claimed that the learners still had problems in pronouncing 'should' after this role-play activity. Lily's claim matches the CO data. In the same lesson, the learners still made errors in 'should' after this role-play activity. One of these occasions happened right after this activity when the learners repeated each of the sentences of this dialogue after Lily. Lily did not correct the error. In the interview, she explained the reason for this, '*because there's no time…it's close to the break time* (INT3)'.

Besides, this error in 'should' reoccurred again in the next lesson (CO3), and one of these occasions happened when Lily and a learner, Alice (L(A) below), practised this dialogue in pairs (see Extract 5.7.1 below).

Extract 5.7.1 (CO3)

169	Lily	I don't feel good. I have a /ˈstʌmə/ (.) /keɪ/
170	L(A)	How long have you had a /ˈstʌməkeɪ(k?)/
171	Lily	I have had /ˈstʌməˌkeɪ(k?)/ for three days.
172	L(A)	You start take medicine for one week.
173	Lily	Thank you, doctor.
174	L(A)	You're welcome.

In this exchange, Lily also makes phonological errors in line 169 (ˈstʌmə/ (.) /keɪ/) and line 171 (/ˈstʌməˌkeɪ(k?)/). When I transcribed the CO data, I also found Lily made these errors or other minor errors occasionally (e.g. '/ˈɪə.r/ (.) /keɪk/' in CO1).

Thus, the cause of the learners' recurring pronunciation errors might partially result from Lily's non-standard pronunciations.

This extract happened when the two teachers and their learners walked around the classroom and practised the dialogue in pairs. Thus, the class was not quiet at that moment. Thus, only two errors were heard when I transcribed the data ('/ˈstʌməkeɪ(k?)/' in line 170 and 'start' in line 172). In the interview, Lily said, '*I remember* Alice *was..*take medicine*..then* should *wasn't pronounced well, either..*how long*..*long *wasn't pronounced well, either* (INT4)'. This matches Lily's corrections following Extract 5.7.1 because she provided CF on 'long', 'should', and 'medicine'. Lily's delayed CF also matches her beliefs in CF that she preferred to correct errors after an activity had finished. I will present Lily's corrections on 'should' below.

Extract 5.7.2 (CO4)

189	Lily	this one ((pointing at 'you' on the PowerPoint slide))
190	L(A)	You (.) /ʃɔ:l/ (.) take /ˈmedə/ for one week.
191	Lily	Ok, what's this (↑) ((pointing at 'you' on the PowerPoint slide))
192	L(A)	you /ʃɔ:l/
193	Lily	/ʊ/
194	L(A)	/ʊ/, /ʃʊ/
195	Lily	/ʃʊ/
196	L(A)	/ʃʊ/ /ʃʊ/
197	Lily	ok, should
198	L(A)	should

In line 189, Lily again starts her correction by finger pointing at the PowerPoint slide plus elicitation (this one), after this, Alice makes an error in 'should' in line 190 (/ʃɔ:l/). Following this error, Alice uses the same strategy, pointing at the PowerPoint slide as well as verbally eliciting the correct pronunciation of 'should' in line 191 (ok, what's this). Nonetheless, Alice makes the same error in line 192 (/ʃɔ:l/), mispronouncing '/ʊd/' as '/ɔ:l/'. After this repeated error, Alice's CF strategies has changed from a combination of verbal plus nonverbal CF in line 189 and line 191 to a shorter, salient recast in line 193 (/ʊ/). Lily's strategy works because Alice repeats the correct pronunciation after Lily in line 194 (/ʊ/). From line 193 to line 197, Lily's

use of scaffolding is similar to how she corrected the phonological error in 'sore throat' as well as what the learners said in the interviews (see Section 5.6.1 above).

In line 193, she starts with the vowel (/ʊ/), after this she adds one of the consonants in line 195 (/ʃʊ/) and the whole word in line 197 (should). Apparently, Lily's CF strategies work very well because Alice pronounces 'should' accurately in line 198. In the 4th interview, Lily also mentioned that correcting the errors directly as well as immediately through recast is helpful for the learners to correct their errors.

After Extract 5.7.2, Lily started to correct another phonological error in 'medicine'. Then, Lily asked Alice to read the whole sentence again (you should take medicine for one week). Nonetheless, Alice made the same error in 'should' again because she said, 'you /ʃɔ:l/ take medicine for one week'. In CO data, this phonological error happened in line 212 even though Alice just corrected it in line 198 above (see Extract 5.7.2). Besides, the same phonological error also recurred in other occasions of CO3. Since this error in 'should' happened from CO1 to CO3, so I discussed this with Lily in the interview. I asked Lily whether she considered writing letter 'o' and letter 'u' down, underlining these letters, steadily teaching the pronunciation of 'should'. Lily replied,

> '*Yes, I thought about that, but I felt this word* ((should)) *(.) they won't use it later after all. To elementary school learners, they won't use it. This word doesn't follow phonics rules, either…so I didn't want to correct it in a very salient way…but I did say* /ʊ/ (INT4)'
>
> '*I just didn't want to write* should *down because to me, this word is not the key point* (INT4)'.

Lily and I further discussed the error in 'should' in the interview. She said that one of the main reasons she decided not to provide written prompts on the blackboard or very explicit CF on 'should' was that it was not key vocabulary. To Lily, 'should' was not present in the coursebook, and elementary school learners did not need to use this word. This suggests that this supplementary word, 'should', and Lily's views on error treatment of 'should' opened up room for Lily's learners to repeatedly make this phonological error, as well as increasing the time and amount of CF Lily attended to this error.

In the interview, Lily also specified another reason that her learners kept making errors in 'should':

> '*There is a problem that the learners basically don't know what* should *means and I've never explained it, either…If I really want to point this out later, I would definitely tell them what this word means. Then, I would practise different (.)* should (.) go to school*…I would say, er,* the meaning of should*…hmm, 'should'…*You can put verbs after should. You should go to school. You should eat lunch. You should eat breakfast. *Then, I would write more sentences…Each sentence will be repeatedly practised…The* context *(.) Then, they would remember more clearly how that word is used* (INT4)'.

Lily's explanations above have three implications. Firstly, knowing the Chinese meanings of words helps with the learners' English pronunciations. Secondly, instead of applying 'should' to meaningful communication, Lily still focused on drilling of the sentence structure (e.g. you should…). Lastly, even when Lily explained the meaning of 'should', she still used English most of the time. The last feature was also observed in CO1, CO2, and CO4. It also relates to Lily's views on the use of language in class (see below).

5.6.2.3 Lily's Views on the Use of Language in Class

The coursebook had Chinese translataions, but all of the supplementary materials did not have Chinese translations. Nonetheless, Lily scarcely spoke Chinese in the lessons I observed. In the 3rd interview, Lily agreed that she hoped to instruct in English. In the 4th interview, she gave further reasons for this:

> '*I didn't want to translate them* (INT4)'

> '*Sometime, I hesitate about whether to explain it in Chinese or not…If I am teaching alone, I might add Chinese. If I am co-teaching with Jack, I really dislike explaining it in Chinese because I feel as if the Chinese-speaking teacher's job was just to translate. I don't want to be like this. When I teach this part alone next time, I would explain it.* (INT4)'

It seems that Lily preferred an English-only instruction (Inbar-Lourie, 2010; McMillan and Rivers, 2011). She further enforced this notion of English-only in class by claiming that '*If the learners really don't understand it, come to ask me. I don't want to keep explaining it in class* (INT5)'. When our discussion continued, Lily agreed that using English only or trying to speak English only in class would be better for learners' English language learning.

The above illustrates the reasons why Lily avoided using Chinese in class. On the other hand, I asked Lily when she decided to speak Chinese in class. Lily responded similarly in different interviews:

> '*When it's too confusing or when I felt the learners didn't seem to comprehend it at all* (INT2)'.
>
> '*It looked as if they didn't understand it* (INT3)'
>
> '*To me, I would only explain the part they really don't understand* (INT5)').

Lily's claims above seem to contradict her behaviour in class. She specified that the learners did not comprehend the Chinese meaning of 'should'. However, she had never taught them what 'should' meant in Chinese. Thus, it is interesting to discover that to Lily, using English in class seems to be the top priority, which outweighed her other teaching beliefs.

5.6.3 'Yes, I do have a toothache.' and 'Do you have a fever, too?'

In the lessons I observed, Lily corrected three intonation errors: 'Do you have a headache? (CO3)', 'Yes, I do have a toothache. (CO3)', and 'Do you have a fever, too? (CO4)'. Lily specified that '*I feel intonation is very important* (INT5)', so I will present two examples that Lily and I discussed in the interviews.

5.6.3.1 Yes, I do have a toothache.

In CO3, when the learners were taking turns to ask each other these sentence patterns, 'Do you have a ___?', 'Yes, I do have a ___.', and 'No, I don't have a ___.', I heard Lily saying 'ok, one more time' in English. In class, I was wondering whether she was correcting errors or not, so I noted this utterance down (line 347 below) as well as what the learner said (line 346 below).

Extract 5.8 (CO3)

344	Lily	David, can you ask her (↑) ((firstly pointing at David and then pointing at Mandy))
345	L(D)	Do you (.) have (.) a (.) /ˈtuːθ/ (.) /eɪ/ (↑)
346	L(M)	Yes ((Jack points at both 'yes' and 'no' answers)), I (.) **DO** have (.) a toothache. ((Lily points at the 'yes' answer))

347	Lily	ok, one more time.	I	((laughing and pointing at the PowerPoint slide)) ((nodding her head while saying 'I'))
348	L(M)		Yes,	I do have a
349	Lily			I do have a ((pointing at this sentence and nodding her head))
350	L(M)	toothache.		
351	Lily	ok, next one, Jim.		

In the interview, I asked Lily to watch this clip and see if she was correcting Mandy in line 347 (ok, one more time). Lily replied, '*She didn't seem to pronounce this sentence well…The* intonation *was wrong…She said, "*Yes, I do (.) have a (INT4)'. Thus, to Lily, Mandy's intonation is wrong in line 346 because her pause between 'do' and 'have' is too long. For this reason, Lily immediately asks Mandy to reformulate this sentence in line 347 (ok, one more time). Simultaneously, Lily combines a nonverbal CF strategy by pointing at the PowerPoint slide to assist Mandy in pronouncing this sentence correctly.

5.6.3.2 Do you have a fever, too?

In the 5th interview, Lily reveals that to her, in an interrogative sentence, the last word with a falling intonation was an error. Lily specified that she corrected one intonation error in CO4: 'Do you have a fever, too?'. This correction happened when Lily's learners were role-playing Lesson 5's main texts of their coursebook. One learner said, 'Do you have a fever, too (↓)'. This learner said the last word, 'too', with a falling intonation, so to Lily, it was an error. Unlike her immediate correction above, in this example, Lily waited until the learners had finished the role-play (see Extract 5.9 below). Lily said in the interview that '*I usually provide delayed CF…I really dislike immediate corrections* (INT5)'. Lily's reason was that immediate CF would interrupt the flow of the classroom interaction. However, Lily added that immediate CF might be more effective than delayed CF because the learners could remember it. Thus, Lily's claims here coincide with what she said in the 1st interview (see Section 5.4 above), and her delayed CF in the following extract matches her preferred correction habits (see also Section 5.6.2).

Extract 5.9 (CO4)

((Before Extract 5.9, Lily wrote down this sentence 'Do you have a fever, too?' on the blackboard))

524 Lily and this one, do you have a fever, too (↑) ((putting her hand up))
525 Ls Do you have a fever, too (↑)
526 Lily too (↑)
527 Ls too (↑)/doo (↑) ((Lily draws an upward pointing arrow))
528 Lily too (↑) ((drawing an upward pointing arrow))
529 Ls too (↑)

530 Lily ok, put [an arrow] here. ((pointing at the arrow))
531 L(un) [too (↑)]

532 L(un) too (↑) ((Lily points at the arrow))

533 Lily [*draw this*] ((pointing at the arrow))
534 L(un) [too (↑)] ((laughing)) ((Lily points at the arrow))

535 L(un) too (↑) ((Lily points at the arrow))
536 Lily *this arrow* ((pointing at the arrow))
537 L(un) Do you [have] a fever (.) (too (↑)?)
538 L(un) [too (↑)]
539 L(un) too (.) fever, [too (↑)]
540 Ls [too (↑)]
541 Lily Ok, that's it.

In Line 524, Lily again combines elicitation (and this one) with a recast (do you have a fever, too (↑)?). Besides, she simultaneously offers a nonverbal CF strategy by putting her hand up. This cluster of CF strategies demonstrates that in an interrogative sentence, the last word should be a rising intonation. After this, successful learner responses are produced. Lily's learners seem to feel saying 'too' with a rising intonation is fun, so they play the language and repeating 'too' for several times. This extract also reveals the extent intonation is valued by Lily. It is clear that the learners have already understood that 'too' should be pronounced with a rising tone. Nonetheless, Lily still repeatedly points at the upward pointing arrow she has drawn on the blackboard, as well as repeatedly asking her learners to draw an arrow on their coursebook.

If we consider the CO extracts presented so far, it seems that when Lily corrected phonological errors, her common CF strategies were the use of scaffolding as well as

a combination of verbal CF and nonverbal CF. This cluster of CF stategies also matches what the learners said in the interviews. Besides, when the errors were about the coursebook's vocabulary or sentences ('sore throat' and 'do you have a fever, too'), one of the nonverbal CF was written feedback on the blackboard. On the other hand, when the error was supplemntary material (should), Lily tended to avoid translations, written feedback, or detailed corrections. Additionally, the role-play activites presented above as well as in the lessons I observed did not invovle in any meaningful English communication.

5.7 Corrective Feedback on Grammatical Errors

Lily also agreed she corrected the learners' grammatical errors. The learners' incorrect uses of pronouns happened once in CO1 and twice in CO3. One of these examples was corrected by Jack only (Section 5.7.1), so I will present the other two examples below (Section 5.7.2).

5.7.1 She

In CO1, after Lily reviewed the vocabulary of the coursebook, she drilled the class in the following sentence structures: 'What's wrong with you? I have a ___ (e.g. headache). What's wrong with ___ (e.g. Betty)? ___ (e.g. He/She) has a ___ (e.g. stomachache).' (see below).

Extract 5.10 (CO1)

227	Lily	Good, ok, and everyone, what's wrong with Alice (↑)
228	L(un)	he
229	Ls	she ((one learner laughs)) ((Lily has a smiley face))
230	Jack	she ((one learner laughs)) ((Lily has a smiley face))
231	Ls	has ((Lily laughs)) a
232	Jack	running nose
233	Ls	running nose
234	Lily	not he.., ok ((slightly laughing)) ((laughing))

When the learners are practising this sentence pattern, each learner has a red cross. Alice puts it on her nose; that is why the answer is 'running nose' in lines 232-233. Following the incorrect use of pronoun made by an unidentified learner in line 228

(he), either this learner self-corrects the error in line 229, this learner's peers provide peer-correction in line 229, or both of them. Concurrently, Jack also corrected the error through recast in line 230 (she). In the video, Lily has a smiley face in lines 229-230, and she laughs in line 231. In the interview, Lily did not specify whether these were CF strategies or not. However, when I observed Lily's lessons, I noticed that Lily's facial expressions like a smiley face or her laughter was sometimes like a sign, implying that what the learners were saying or what they had just said was incorrect. The same opinion was also pointed out by Lily's learners in the interview. When I asked the learners how they knew Lily was correcting their errors or how Lily corrected their errors in class, the learners in INL1 said that Lily might '*have a weird smile or smile consecutively*';

In the interview, I pointed out Lily's behaviour in line 234 and asked Lily her reason for this. She said, '*Oh, I made a joke* ((laughing)) *reminded them "*not he..*"* (INT2)'. Besides, unlike Jack, who provides an immediate recast after the error in line 230 (she), Lily waited until the learners had finished the whole sentence. She explained, '*because they corrected it by themselves and I didn't want to intervene directly* (INT2)'. In the interview, Lily said her behaviour in line 234 ('not he..' plus laughter) was only a tease, not CF. However, this implies that Lily also paid attention to her learners' grammatical errors, which matches her claims in the 1st interview (see Section 5.4 above).

5.7.2 He and Yes, he does.

At the beginning of the 4th interview, when Lily was asked to recalled whether she corrected errors in class, she replied,

> '*Yes, a lot.* ((Laughing)) *Today…grammar was the focus, so I corrected it immediately…For example,* does she. *Hmm,* he *(.)* she. *These must be corrected. These were very basic ones. Then, for example,* she does. *They seldom made this error, but I would correct it immediately if there's an error* (INT4)'.

What Lily said corresponds with Extracts 5.11.1-5.11.2 below which occurred when Lily drilled the sentence patterns: 'Does she/he have a headache?', 'Yes, she/he does. No she/he doesn't.', and 'Yes, she/he does have a headache. No, she/he doesn't have a headache.'. Extract 5.11.1 started after Lily asked David to stand up. The reason

was that Lily wanted the rest of the learners to practise the sentence pattern related to David (Does he…).

Extract 5.11.1 (CO3)

393	Lily	Everyone, I (start?) here. Does ((pointing at the PowerPoint slide))
394	Ls	Does she have a headache (↑) ((Lily points at the PowerPoint slide)) ((Lily smiles after hearing the error, 'she'))
395	Jack	she have a headache (↑) ((Lily points at the PowerPoint slide)) ((Lily smiles after hearing the error, 'she'))
396	Lily	ok, David, stand up. ((her hand facing up and pointing towards David)) ((smiling)) he (↑) or she (↑) ((smiling)) ((pointing at David))
397	Ls	he ((smiling)) ((Lily points at David))
398	Lily	he, ((smiling)) ((pointing at David)) ok, so the sentence again. ((pointing at the PowerPoint slide)) ((smiling))
399	Jack	Does he have a headache (↑) ((Lily points at the PowerPoint slide))
400	Ls	Does he have a headache (↑) ((Lily points at the PowerPoint slide))
401	Lily	Does he have a headache (↑) ((pointing at the PowerPoint slide))
		yes (↑) or no (↑) ((pointing at both 'yes' and 'no' answers on the PowerPoint slide and then her hand facing up plus a smiley face))

Grammar is CO3's focus, so like what Lily said in the interview, when an error happens in line 394 (does she), she corrects it immediately. However, this correction is again a complex process. To begin with, not only does Lily's learners make this error in line 394, Jack's parallel utterance in line 395 makes the same error (she). After this, Lily provides CF by the use of scaffolding. Firstly, after Lily hears the learners' error in line 394, she immediately smiles (lines 394-395). As mentioned above, from my classroom observations as well as the learners' claim in the interview, Lily's smile here is like a sign, indicating there is an error. Thus, to the learners, Lily's smiles or laughter can serve as one kind of CF strategies.

Lily continues to build scaffolding in line 396 where she offers a more explicit and complex CF. Ellis (2015: 214) applied SCT's mediation in SLA, and he claims that 'mediation involves the use of "tools" that help learners'. In line 396, although David is neither an object nor a tool, by the time when Lily asks David to stand up and uses her hand to point towards him, David's gender, a male, seems to serve as a tool, helping Lily's learners understand that the correct pronoun should be 'he'. Besides,

in the same line, Lily continues to build scaffolding through a combination of elicitation ('he or she' in line 396) and hand pointing at David. Due to Lily's CF strategies from a more implicit CF in lines 394-395 to a more explicit CF in line 396, Lily's learners produce a correct answer in line 397.

Another error, 'she does', specified by Lily in the above interview quote happened shortly after Extract 5.11.1 (see below).

Extract 5.11.2 (CO3)

((From line 412 to line 415, Lily points at both the 'yes' and 'no' answer on the PowerPoint slide))

412 Lily Let me ask you, 'Does David have a /beɪ/ (.) /keɪ/ (↑)' Yes or no. ((The correct utterance is 'backache'.))

413 L(un) yes

414 Ls she

415 L(un) he

416 L(un) Yes, he

417 Lily yes does. ((slightly nodding her head)) ((pointing at the PowerPoint slide))

418 Ls she

419 Ls he

420 Lily she (↑) or he (↑) ((looking at the learner, Cindy, and pointing at her for a very short time))

421 L(un) he does ((another learner responds to Lily's question)) ((Lily looks at the learner, Cindy))

422 L(un) no

423 L(C) she ((the learner, Cindy))

424 Lily yes, ((pointing at the PowerPoint slide))

425 L(un) she

426 L(un) he does.

427 Lily she (↑). I hear her she (↑) ((Looking at the learner, Cindy, and moving towards Cindy with a smiley face)) ((Jack looks at Cindy and slightly moves towards Cindy with a slightly doubtful face))

428 L(C) **HE..**

429 Lily ok, ((nodding her head with a smiley face plus pointing at the PowerPoint slide)) yes ((pointing at the PowerPoint slide with a smiley face))

430 L(un) he does

Grammar is CO3's focus, so in this extract, Lily again offers corrections immediately after she hears an error. The error treatment process again involves a complex interaction. The reason is that it takes three forms of mediation: self-regulation because the learners corrected the error by themselves, other-regulation by Lily, Jack, or her learners, and object-regulation through the use of the PowerPoint slide. To begin with, following the error, 'she', in line 414, two learners correct the error in line 415 (he) and line 416 (yes, he does) respectively, which could be either self-correction (i.e. self-regulation) or other-regulation (i.e. peer-correction). Meanwhile, Lily points at the PowerPoint slide from line 412 to line 415. Thus, the CF process so far might involve the mediation by learners themselves, mediation by peers, mediation by the PowerPoint slide, or a combination of both or all of them. Next, in line 417, Lily provides verbal elicitation (yes) plus two nonverbal CF strategies (nodding her head and pointing at the PowerPoint slide.

Nonetheless, the error, 'she', was still spoken by more than one learner in line 418. After this error, line 419 (he) may again be self-correction, peer-correction, or both of them. In line 420, Lily also offers immediately CF through a combination of verbal elicitation (she or he?) and two nonverbal CF strategies (i.e. looking at a specific learner and pointing). After this, this learner, Cindy, and an unidentified learner still make the same error in line 423 (she) and line 425. (she). Then, line 426 (he does) may again be self-correction or peer-correction. In line 427, Lily also provides another immediate CF, but this time, Lily's CF offers more explicit CF. Her nonverbal CF involves looking at Cindy and moving towards Cindy with a smiley face. Meanwhile, Lily orally repeats the error twice with a rising intonation. Besides, in the same line, Jack also gives nonverbal CF by looking at Cindy and moving towards her with a doubtful face. After this explicit CF, Cindy in line 428 reads aloud the correct answer with a stress and an elongated sound. Consequently, in this extract, the mediation again involves the use of scaffolding, starting with more implicit CF in line 417 (a verbal elicitation, 'yes', plus nonverbal head nodding and pointing at the PowerPoint slide) to a more explicit CF in line 427 where Lily offers multiple nonverbal behaviour as well as repeats the error twice with exaggerated sounds and Jack uses multiple nonverbal CF strategies. Thus, Lily's error treatment on grammatical errors again demonstrates a complex cluster of CF strategies.

Besides, when two teachers co-teach in class, the whole CF process becomes further complicated.

5.8 Summary

Salient findings have emerged from the CF extracts presented in this chapter: focus-on-forms instruction; focus on word level accuracy (e.g. 'sore throat'); emphasise word, sentence, and dialogue drilling; focus on supplementary materials; extensive use of English in class. In terms of the timing of providing CF, Lily preferred delayed CF because she did not like interrupting the flow of the classroom interaction. Lily also provided delayed CF when she wanted to find out whether the same error was made by more than one learner (e.g. 'should'). On the other hand, Lily still offered immediate corrections when the errors related to that lesson's focus (e.g. 'yes, he does'). Lily also provided immediate CF when she wanted to offer more effective CF. To Lily, instant corrections helps more with the learners' English language learning than delayed corrections. In terms of Lily's CF strategies, complicated clusters of verbal CF strategies and nonverbal CF strategies clearly emerged from the findings. These strategies also involved the use of scaffolding, multiple forms of mediation, and dynamic assessment. In terms of verbal CF strategies, Lily often used elicitation, recasts, or a combination of elicitation and a recast when she corrected phonological errors. Lily tended to employ elicitation or repetition of errors when she attended grammatical errors. On the other hand, a variety of nonverbal CF strategies have emerged from the findings. These included the use of written feedback on the blackboard, underlining letters or words, drawing an arrow, body movement, hand gestures, facial expressions, the use of the PowerPoint slides, pointing at specific learners, written feedback, or the PowerPoint slides, and the use of a learner's gender as a CF tool. Besides, when the errors belonged to the supplementary materials, Lily avoided using written feedback, as well as avoiding detailed or explicit corrections. On the other hand, when the errors were part of the coursebook's content, she often used written feedback on the blackboard when she corrected the errors (e.g. 'sore throat' and 'do you have a fever, too'). Lastly, Lily's CF timing and methods also took time limitation and individual learners' differences into consideration. Consequently, like Amy's class, the CF extracts presented in this chapter have demonstrated that the current literature on CF

does not account for the complexity of the classroom interaction around errors that is evidenced in Lily's class. Therefore, further research would be necessary to adequately capture what actually happens in the elementary English classes in Taiwan.

Chapter 6
Tina's Class

6.1 Introduction

This chapter will present interactional episodes around CF in Tina's class. Like Amy's and Lily's class, Tina also adopted focus-on-forms instruction, focused on accuracy of the pronunciation of words, spent most of the class time on word and sentence pattern drilling, used nonverbal CF strategies, and combined verbal CF strategies with nonverbal CF strategies. Like Amy's class, Tina primarily instructed in Chinese. Language play by the learners was a salient feature in Tina's class which provided opportunities for Tina's CF to take place in class (see Section 6.6.6). On the other hand, similar to Lily's class, Tina also used supplementary materials, but this only happened at the end of two lessons I observed. In Tina's class, the role-play activity, games, and teaching of supplementary materials only involved reading the coursebook's texts, word drilling, or sentence drilling, so no meaningful English communication was found in the lessons I observed. In this chapter, I will firstly introduce contextual information about Tina and Tina's school (Section 6.2) and Tina's class (6.3). I will then talk about Tina's definition of error and her views on CF (6.4), after which I will illustrate the error types Tina provided CF on (6.5). The next sections will describe when and how Tina provided CF on phonological errors (6.6), grammatical errors (6.7), and translation errors (6.8). This chapter will be concluded with a short summary of Tina's CF strategies (6.9).

6.2 Tina's School and Tina's Background

Tina's school was located in Changhua County, the smallest county on Taiwan's main island. At Tina's school, there were either 1 class or 2 classes per year; Tina taught English in both year-five classes and both year-six classes when I collected the data. Tina had a Bachelor's degree in Economics from a Taiwanese university and completed a Master's degree in Teaching English as a Foreign Language in the UK. Tina started her teaching job at an English language school in Taiwan in 2000. Since then, she had been teaching English in different institutions, including public

elementary schools and a community college. Tina also had experience with in-home tutoring. When I interviewed her in late 2013, Tina said she had 12 years' teaching experience.

6.3 Tina's Class

There were 21 learners (i.e. 10 boys and 11 girls) in Tina's class. I observed 4 lessons, interviewed Tina 5 times, and conducted 4 paired learner interviews (see Chapter 3). Like Amy's class and Lily's class, the coursebook used in Tina's class was also decided by her school. Its name was 'Happy Story (Level 7)' (see A in Figure 6.1 below). Similar to the coursebook used in Amy's class and Lily's class (see Section 4.3), this coursebook, 'Happy Story', also claimed it adopted a communicative language teaching approach and was designed on the basis of topics and communicative functions. The coursebook also mentioned that its content related to the material and context that elementary schools' learners were familiar with and the main texts were presented through dialogues which formed a story (D and E in Figure 6.1 below). Besides the main texts, the other subheadings were as follows: Sentence Patterns (B and C), New Words (B), Phonics Time (F and G), Song or Chant (H), and Proverb or Idiom (H). Finally, the last unit of the whole book was a culture unit where learners were able to learn about domestic and foreign culture. This book claimed that its purpose was to develop learners' listening, speaking, reading, and writing abilities. However, like the other coursebook used in Amy's class and Lily's class, the design of the coursebook, 'Happy Story' did not seem to offer learners any chances to engage in meaningful communication. While it has a reading comprehension section related to the main texts (E in Figure 6.1 below), its design seems to focus on drilling of vocabulary, sentence patterns, and phonics. Besides the coursebook, at the end of CO2 and CO4, Tina provided supplementary materials, 'One Sentence Per Week', where she taught her learners daily dialogues. However, what Tina did was to translate these dialogues into Chinese, explain when and how the learners could use them, and then drill her learners to read these dialogues aloud. Tina did not seem to use the coursebook or supplementary materials in a communicative way.

Figure 6.1 The Coursebook: Happy Story (Level 7)

Similar to Amy's class and Lily's class, Tina also paid attention to the repeated, oral practices of the vocabulary, sentence patterns, main texts, and phonics. These practices were sometimes done through games (i.e. 2 games in CO1, 1 game in CO3, and 1 game in CO4). Lastly, Tina taught the lessons in the medium of Chinese. Except for the coursebook's English texts and supplementary materials' English texts, Tina scarcely spoke other English in the lessons I observed. The above characteristics seem to open up or close down the production of certain kinds of errors Tina's learners made in class, thereby affecting the error types Tina corrected in class (see Section 6.5 below).

6.4 Tina's Definition of Error and Tina's View on Corrective Feedback

Like Chapter 4 and Chapter 5, I will also illustrate Tina's definition of an error and her view on CF. In the 1st interview, when I asked Tina her definition of an error, she commented,

> '*When learners say wrong vocabulary or wrong sentences…Usually, we only teach vocabulary and sentences in elementary schools.* (INT1)'.

In class, Tina also focused on mechanical drilling of vocabulary and sentences. In the interview, I also discussed pronunciation errors with Tina; she replied,

> '*We're Taiwanese; therefore, it's normal if the learners say a word incorrectly. We have our own accent. If the learners don't pronounce a word very accurately, to me, it doesn't matter. I don't ask them to have perfect pronunciation* (INT1).'

Tina further explained,

> '*If the learners' pronunciation isn't like native speakers' but it's how Taiwanese people usually pronounce, I can accept it because we have our own accent and our own way of saying it as long as foreigners understand it and we are able to communicate with each other* (INT1).'

Tina's above viewpoint relates to English as a lingua franca (Wang and Jenkins, 2016) and is in line with Wang and Jenkins' (2016: 41) argument that non-native English speakers 'have their right to use English creatively'. Besides, Tina's view that English was for communication relates to focus-on-form approach where teachers draw learners' attention to linguistic forms when there is a communication

problem. However, in class, Tina only adopted focus on forms approach (see Chapter 2).

In the interview, Tina also expressed her view on correcting pronunciation errors.

> '*I would try to tell them the standard pronunciation, but if they are unable to do so, I wouldn't say it* (INT1)'

> '*I would tell them to listen to the CD's pronunciation carefully, tell them the difference, and remind them. However, if they themselves are unable to pronounce it perfectly, I wouldn't ask them to do so* (INT1)'

In class, Tina also used the coursebook CD to correct the learners' pronunciation errors (see Section 6.6.3). In the interview, Tina also specified she did not correct all the phonological errors, and she further explained that when the learners mispronounced 'apples' as '/ˈæpəls/',

> '*I remind them, but if they still don't comprehend it and keep pronouncing '/ˈæpəls/', I feel it's fine. Just like we learn our mother tongue. We don't pronounce a Chinese word very accurately, but we still know it. When we communicate with others, we don't say correct pronunciations as well. Additionally, I heard an English native speaker pronounce '/ˈæpəls/'. Sometimes, this native speaker didn't say* apples *very clearly, either. He didn't say '/ˈæpəl***z..***/' as well. Thus, I think it's ok* (INT1).'

Here, Tina's argument again relates to the notion of focus-on-form approach, which focuses on meaning. Besides, Tina pointed out the phonological mistakes of a native speaker, which appears to justify her view about not having perfect English pronunciation. It was also observed that Tina seems to speak English confidently in class no matter how non-standard her pronunciation was (e.g. Section 6.6.1) (see also Garton and Copland (2015) for teachers feeling their own language level was insufficient for speaking English all the time in class). Consequently, to Tina, having accurate English pronunciation is not the first priority of learning English, so she did not always correct it. Next, I moved on to grammar errors and asked Tina's view on correcting grammatical errors. Firstly, Tina said that she would correct errors in singular and plural nouns even if they were not the focus of that lesson. This coincides with what happened in class because Tina corrected the incorrect use of singular and plural nouns (see Section 6.7.1). Next, Tina further expressed her view on the provision of CF on grammatical errors: '*I will correct it immediately if they say a sentence incorrectly. I also correct pronunciation errors immediately* (INT1)'.

What Tina said relates to another focus of this study – the timing of correcting oral errors in class. Thus, I further discussed this with Tina; she replied,

> '*I correct them immediately most of the time. When they say a sentence incorrectly, I hope that they could say the correct sentence, so I hope to correct them immediately in order to let them understand clearly how it is used* (INT1)'.

In class, it was also found that Tina generally corrected errors immediately (see Sections 6.6-6.8). Finally, I asked Tina's views on CF regarding the learners' self-esteem. Tina did not feel it was a problem because she said, '*sometimes, the learners only engage in* group *exercises. I don't ask individual learners to read English aloud in front of the whole class…I don't usually ask a shy learner to answer my question* (INT1)'.

Consequently, Tina firstly gave a broad definition of an error – saying incorrect vocabulary or sentences. Then, she spent much time expressing her views on English pronunciation and correcting pronunciation errors, as well as briefly talking about correction of grammar errors and specifying that she would correct both grammar and pronunciation errors immediately. To an extent, this matches the CO data that the focus of Tina's correction was on vocabulary and sentences and she seems to correct oral errors immediately after she heard them.

6.5 Error Types Tina Provided Corrective Feedback On

Similar to Amy's class and Lily's class, the error type Tina corrected most often was phonological error, which was also the only type of error she corrected in the 3rd lesson I observed. In the 4 lessons I observed, Tina also corrected translation errors and grammatical errors. Unlike Amy's and Lily's class, the grammatical errors in Tina's class involved oral grammatical errors, written grammatical errors, and a combination of written grammatical errors on the blackboard and subsequent oral grammatical errors. Due to my research focus, I will only analyse Tina's CF on oral grammatical errors in this chapter. Lastly, there were no instances of lexical error correction. This might result from the design of the coursebook (see Section 6.3), the way Tina used the coursebook and supplementary materials (see Section 6.3), Tina's views on CF (see Section 6.4), Tina's extensive use of Chinese in class, and the discovery that no meaningful communication was spotted in these 4 lessons.

6.6 Corrective Feedback on Phonological Errors

Tina's corrections of phonological errors were not only specified by Tina herself but also pointed out by her learners in the interviews (see below).

> '*Sometimes, the teacher corrects it when the pronunciation is incorrect* (INL2)'
>
> '*The teacher will say it again if we pronounce English incorrectly* (INL3)'
>
> When we mispronounced 'apple', Tina '*would say* apple*, read it again,* apple' or '*would stress the sound*' such as '/'**bɒ..**təl/' in response to the error '/'botəl/ (INL1)'
>
> '*If we pronounce English wrongly, the teacher will say it's fine and then revise it* (INL4)'

Tina's provision of CF on phonological errors was also found when I observed the lessons, transcribed the CO data, and coded the CO data. Thus, Tina's corrections of phonological errors will be presented first. The following examples will start with reoccurring phonological errors. After this, I will present examples related a feature of Tina's CF, i.e. praise immediately followed by CF. Finally, I will present Tina's CF of the phonological errors which involved the learners' language play.

6.6.1 Thirty

In the interview following CO1, when I asked Tina how her learners were able to notice her CF, she responded,

> '*For example, like 'thirty', sometimes, they forget to stick out the tongue. I would then remind them. However, sometimes, I don't remind them. I probably read it aloud directly, 'thirty'. Then, they would know it* (INT2)'

What Tina said corresponds with what happened at the beginning of CO1 when she was reviewing the pronunciation of numbers, i.e. 10, 15, …, and 100 (see Extract 6.1 below).

Extract 6.1 (CO1)

((Tina wrote down numbers 10, 15, 20, …, and 100 on the blackboard.))

45	Tina	*now, (Review?) these* numbers *again. Read them aloud once.* ten. ((pointing at these numbers))
46	Ls	ten

47 Tina /f [ɪf/
48 Ls [fifteen, twenty, twenty-/faɪ/, [thirty ((Tina sticks out her
Ls [fifty /ˈsɜːti/ tongue and mouths
number 30))

Ls [thirty-/faɪ/ ((Tina points at number 35 first then points at number
Ls [/ˈsɜːti/-/faɪ/ 30 again after hearing an error))

((Tina mouths these numbers when her learners read the above numbers))

49 Tina *Wait, the tongue should be* [*stuck out.* ((pointing at number 30))
50 L(un) [/fɔː/ ((Tina points at number 30))

51 Tina thirty ((pointing at number 30))
52 Ls thirty ((Tina points at number 35)) thirty-/faɪ/, forty, forty-/faɪ/...
((keeping reading these numbers aloud)) ((Tina keeps mouthing and
pointing at these numbers))

In the interview, after Tina and I watched the above video clip, Tina confirmed that '/ˈsɜːti/' (line 48) was an error. Tina did not specify the other phonological error in line 48 and line 52 (/faɪ/). It was possible that Tina did not notice this error or did not ask the learners to have perfect pronunciation (see Section 6.4 above), but an interesting finding was that Tina also made an error in pronouncing 'five' (see Extract 6.2.2).

Regarding this phonological error in 'thirty' (line 48), Tina provides immediate CF in line 49 and line 51 following this phonological error. In line 49, when Tina points at number 30 to draw the learners' attention to their phonological error (/ˈsɜːti/), she concurrently offers two verbal CF moves. Firstly, Tina interrupts the learners' choral reading (*wait*), after which she teaches the learners how to pronounce '/θ/' correctly (*the tongue should be stuck out*). In line 51, when Tina keeps pointing at number 30, she does not give the learners a chance to produce an output because she instantly offers another verbal CF strategy by recast ('thirty' in line 51). Following Tina's error treatment strategies in line 49 and line 51, her learners successfully correct this phonological error in line 52 (thirty). On the other hand, if the above extract is considered in terms of SCT, the actual English level of the learners identified by Tina is that they are unable to pronounce 'thirty' accurately ('/ˈsɜːti/' in line 48). The error treatment process in this exchange involves mediation by other-regulation (i.e. Tina) and object-regulation (i.e. a written number, 30, on the blackboard). Tina builds

scaffolding by firstly drawing the learners' attention to this phonological error (*wait*) and then instructing them how to use their tongue to pronounce '/θ/' correctly. Tina's scaffolding concludes by exemplifying the accurate pronunciation of 'thirty', and the learners produce the correct utterance following Tina's assistance.

This phonological error in 'thirty' was pointed out again by Tina in the next interview (i.e. INT3) when I asked her if our discussion of CO1 in INT2 had influenced her error correction in today's lesson (i.e. CO2). Tina replied,

> '*No because I still corrected errors according to my own rule of thumb. When I thought the learners would make an error easily on a word or when the utterance sounded like a mispronunciation, I still corrected it. However, your question last time* ((i.e. whether her learners noticed the error they had made and whether they recognised Tina's correction)) *let me reflect that when I correct their error, how am I able to tell the learners this is wrong and how are the learners able to say the utterance correctly, then? Therefore, I would explain it in more detail* (INT3)'

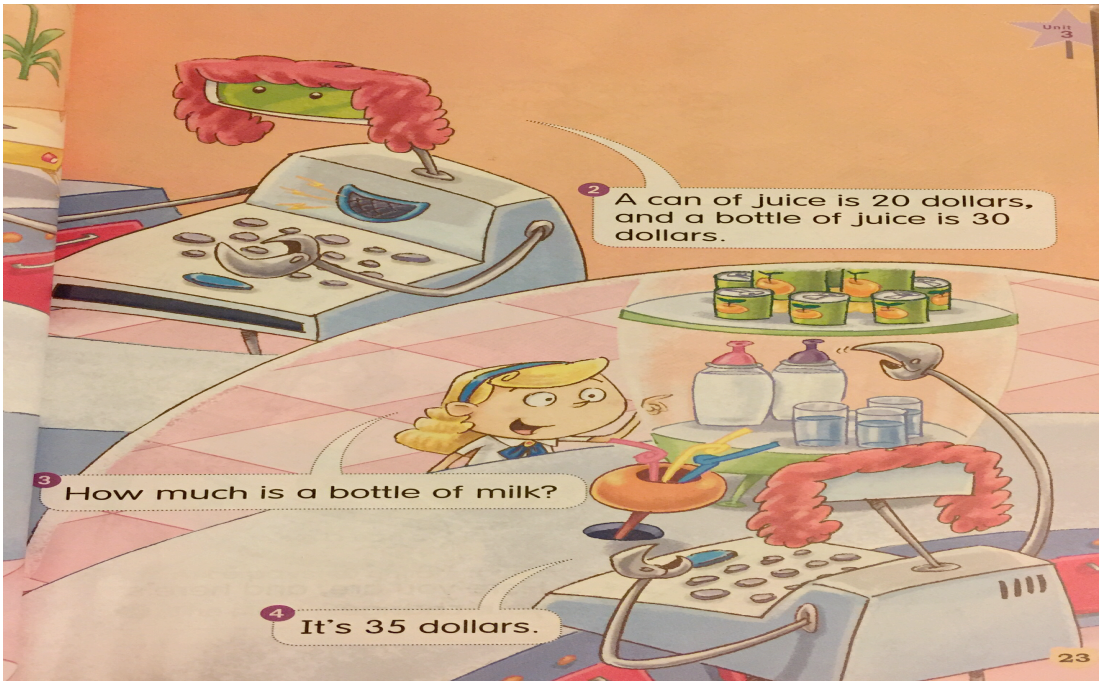
From this quote, Tina did not change her view regarding what kind of error she would correct in class; however, she decided to give more details when she provided CF. After this, Tina gave an example.

> '*Today, I also asked the learners to say* thirty*, but they forgot to stick out the tongue, either. Then, I reminded them again…I had taught the learners before that the pronunciation of the* /tiː/-/eɪtʃ/ *sound needs to stick out the tongue, so I asked them to stick the tongue out* (INT3)'

From this quote, we can see that this phonological error in 'thirty' reoccurred in the next lesson I observed, and the corresponding CO data are shown in Extracts 6.2.1-6.2.2 below.

This error happened when two of Tina's learners individually played the role of Alice and the role of Cash Register of Unit 3's main texts (see Figure 6.2 below). In this role-play activity, these two learners only read aloud the main texts, and they did not change any word or sentence of these texts. Thus, no meaningful English communication was found in this activity.

Figure 6.2 Unit 3: The Main Texts (Page 23)



Extract 6.2.1 (CO2)
((Unit 3's main texts are printed out on big posters by the coursebook publisher and attached on the blackboard by Tina. Tina points at the texts on the poster when these two learners below are reading them.))

656	L1	A can of juice is twenty dollars, and a bottle of juice is /sɜ:..ˈsɜ:ti/ dollars. ((Tina points at the texts on the poster))
657	Tina	thirty, ((you)) *need to stick out the tongue,* thirty. ((pointing her finger at her mouth when she sticks her tongue out and says this sentence))
658	L1	/ˈsɜ:ti/
659	Tina	*You didn't stick out the tongue*, /ˈθɜ:tis/. ((pointing her finger at her mouth when she sticks her tongue out and says this sentence))
660	L1	thirty
661	Tina	dollars
662	L1	dollars

In this extract, the learner who plays the role of Cash Register makes a phonological error in line 656 (/sɜ:..ˈsɜ:ti/). After this, Tina immediately interrupts the flow of this role-play and corrects this error through a combination of verbal CF and nonverbal CF in line 657. Unlike Extract 6.1 above, Tina's CF in this exchange starts with a recast (thirty). After this, Tina does not give the learner an opportunity to produce an output because she instantly explains how to pronounce '/θ/' correctly (*need to stick out the tongue*). In line 656, Tina's CF does not stop here because she continues to offer another CF move by recast (thirty) again. When Tina offers these three verbal CF moves, she also provides nonverbal strategies by putting her finger in front of her

mouth and sticking her tongue out to show the learner how to accurately pronounce 'thirty'. Thus, even though Tina uses the same verbal CF strategies as the ones she used in Extract 6.1, in line 656, she repeatedly uses a recast, as well as offering more detailed nonverbal CF strategies. Additionally, we can see a relationship between verbal CF and nonverbal CF because pointing her finger at her tongue as well as having her tongue clearly stuck out appears to make the recasts she provides become more explicit. Tina's CF strategies in line 656 also match what she said in the above interview quote that she explained her CF in more detail. However, the same phonological error occurs again in line 658 (/ˈsɜːti/); thus, Tina continues to erect scaffolding in line 659. Tina uses the same nonverbal CF strategies as the ones in line 657 (pointing her finger at her mouth when sticking her tongue out and saying 'thirty'). Nonetheless, Tina's verbal CF strategies here are slightly different the ones in line 657 because this time, Tina explicitly specifies the learner's error (*You didn't stick out the tongue*). After this, Tina also makes a phonological error in line 659 (/ˈθɜːtis/), but the learner successfully produces the correct sound in line 660. Thus, in this extract, the mediation takes two forms, i.e. other-regulation by Tina and object-regulation by written texts on the poster.

Tina's verbal CF strategies in Extract 6.1 and Extract 6.2.1 were also specified by her learners because the learners in all four interviews mentioned that Tina would repeat the correct utterance again, i.e. line 51 of Extract 6.1 and line 657 of Extract 6.2.1. Besides, the learners in both INL1 and INL2 mentioned Tina's CF of 'thirty'. In INL2, for example, the learners stated that '*if you say* '/ˈsɜːti/'*, the teacher says 'your tongue should be stuck out, say* "/θɜː/, thirty" (INL2)'; they explained that Tina's pronunciation would be '*clearer* (INL2)' or more stressed when her repeated utterance was a correction.

Despite the finding that the learner in Extract 6.2.1 corrects the error in line 662 above, he makes the same phonological error in 'thirty' again in line 665 of Extract 6.2.2 below which happened right after Extract 6.2.1.

Extract 6.2.2 (CO2)

((Two learners were playing the roles of two characters of Unit 3's main texts. Tina pointed at the text on the poster when they were reading it.))

663 Tina *ok, your turn.* Alice*, come on.* ((pointing at the learner who plays

the role of Alice))
664 L2 How much is a bottle of milk (↑)
665 L1 /ɪz/ (thirty?)-/faɪ/ ((Tina mouths 'five')) /ˈsɜːti/-/faɪ/ dollars.

L1 above, who says the sentence 'It's thirty-five dollars' incorrectly, is the same learner who makes an error in Extract 6.2.1 above. In line 665, L1 makes phonological errors in 'it's', 'thirty', and 'five', but similar to Extract 6.1 above, Tina only corrects the error in 'thirty' below.

666 Tina *again,* (it's?) /ˈθɜː..ti/ ((sticking her tongue out and elongating the sound of '/θɜː/')) /faʊ/ ((slightly sticking her tongue out))

Tina's immediate error treatment starts by drawing the learner's attention to his error and attempting to ask the learner to reformulate his utterance (*again*). This verbal strategy, *again*, was also specified in three learner interviews (INL1, INL3, and INL4) (see the introduction of Section 6.6 above). Following this verbal strategy (*again*), Tina once again does not give the learner an opportunity to self-correct the error because she instantly says the correct answer by recast (thirty). Simultaneously, like Extract 6.1 and Extract 6.2.1, Tina sticks her tongue out again, but this time, she slightly elongates the sound of '/θɜː/' to signal what the error is. It is also interesting that Tina makes a phonological error in five (/faʊ/) when she corrects another phonological error (thirty).

667 L1 It is /ˈsɜːti/-/faɪ/ dollars.

In spite of Tina's CF in line 666, L1 still makes exactly the same phonological error in 'thirty' again (see line 665 and line 667 above).

668 Tina good, *ok, everyone, pay attention, when you say* thirty ((writing 'thirty' on the blackboard)) Thirty *is thirty, isn't it?* ((writing number 30 above 'thirty')) *You need to remember to stick out the tongue* ((pointing at her mouth)) *because you learnt* ((this)) *before that* /tiː/-/eɪtʃ/ ((underlining letter 't' and letter 'h' on the blackboard)) *needs sticking out the tongue* ((pointing at her mouth)) *so come on, follow* ((me)), *read* ((it)) *once,* /ˈθɜːtis/ ((sticking her tongue out and elongating the sound of '/θɜː/'))

Despite the fact that Tina also makes an error in ‘thirty’ above (/ˈθɜːtis/), we can notice that Tina’s CF strategies move from more implicit CF in line 666 to a very explicit CF strategy in line 668. Tina firstly praises the learner who makes the phonological error in ‘thirty’. This is immediately followed by a very detailed verbal explicit correction with various kinds of nonverbal CF moves, i.e. writing down ‘thirty’ and then ‘*30*’, on the blackboard, pointing her finger at her mouth, underline ‘/tiː/-/eɪtʃ/’, pointing her finger at her mouth again, and lastly sticking her tongue out explicitly. This matches Tina’s explanations in the 3rd interview that her CF became clearer and more detailed (see Tina’s interview quotes above). Besides, even though Tina makes a phonological error again (/ˈθɜːtis/), she uses similar CF strategies in the end, i.e. asking the learners to read the correct utterance again and then recasting the utterance.

669 L(un) thirty

670 Ls thirty
L(un) /ˈθɜːtiər/

671 Tina /ˈθɜːtis/

672 Ls thirty
Ls /ˈsɜːti/
L(un) /ˈθɜːtiər/

673 Tina *ok, then, this is pronounced* /ˈsɜːti/-/faɪ/.

674 Ls thirty-/faɪ/
Ls /ˈsɜːti/-/faɪ/

675 Tina *ok, next, whose turn* (↑) *Is it* Alice (↑)

Following Tina’s explicit CF in line 668, the phonological errors are still heard from line 670 to line 674, but Tina does not provide further CF and moves the class on in line 675. Additionally, from the extracts presented so far, we can realise that Tina herself also makes phonological errors in ‘thirty’ (‘/ˈθɜːtis/’ in line 671 and ‘/ˈsɜːti/’ in line 673) and ‘five’ (‘/faɪ/’ in line 673). These errors as well as other pronunciation errors found in the CO data and interviews data imply that Tina’s English was slightly idiosyncratic. Besides, like Lily, Tina’s non-standard pronunciations might

have also affected her learners' pronunciations, e.g. mispronouncing 'five' as '/faɪ/' (lines 673-674).

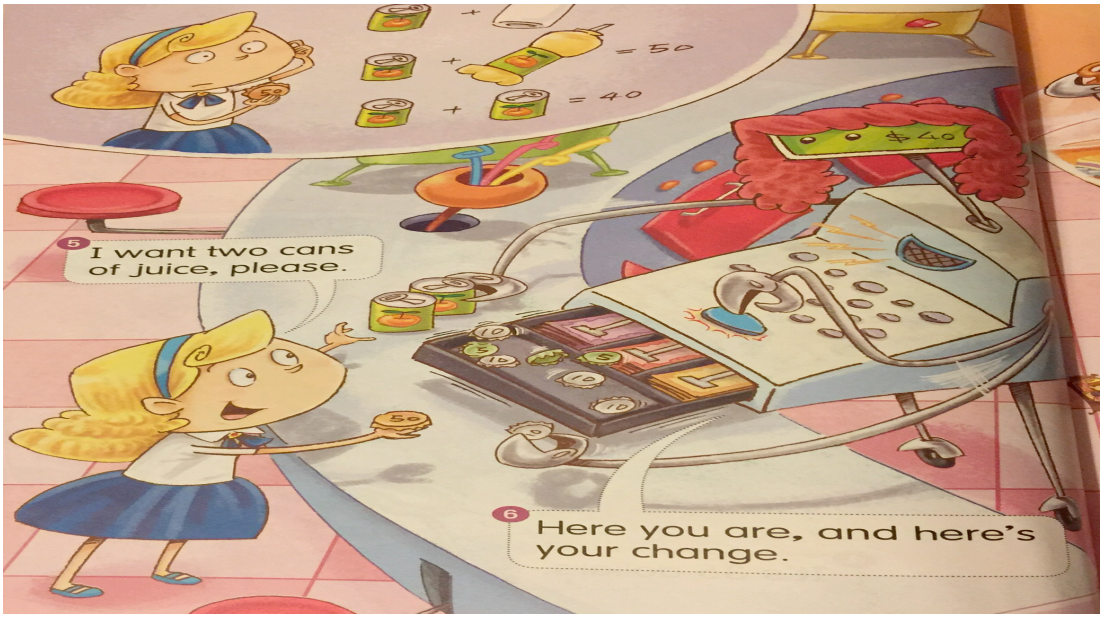
6.6.2 Here's your change.

At the beginning of the 3rd interview, Tina said she had corrected errors in CO2. Thus, I asked her to recall her correction strategies; she replied,

> '*Today, I primarily taught the main texts, so the learners mainly read aloud sentences. When they didn't say a sentence well, I asked them to say it again. I also corrected their pronunciation* (INT3).'

What Tina said matches Extracts 6.2.1-6.2.2 above and Extract 6.3 below. The following extract happened when Tina asked her learners to repeat the main texts of Unit 3 after the coursebook's CD (see also Figure 6.3 below).

Figure 6.3 Unit 3: The Main Texts (Page 24)



Extract 6.3 (CO2)
((Tina looks at either her coursebook or the posters on the blackboard when her learners are reading the texts after the coursebook's CD. Most of the time, Tina pauses the CD to allow the learners to repeat a sentence after the CD.)) ((When Tina is correcting her learners' errors below, she stops the CD. Additionally, most of the time, she is looking at her coursebook, and occasionally, she looks at her learner.))

210 CD Here you are, and here's your change.

211 Ls L(un) Here you are ((Tina stops the CD)) and [here / her] is your

	Ls	change
	L	/ˈtʃeɪn..dʒ/
212	Tina	*One more time, come on,* ‘Here you are’

After watching the video clip of Extract 6.3, Tina pointed out that

> ‘*It’s a complete sentence. Learners would certainly pronounce it poorly, so I stopped the CD. Then, I asked them to follow me and read it again* (INT3)’.

This quote suggests that due to the teaching experience of 12 years (see Section 6.2), Tina was very certain that her learners would make phonological errors when they read this sentence ‘here you are, and here’s your change’ in line 211. Thus, instead of pausing the CD, Tina decides to stop the CD in line 211 to get ready for her subsequent CF from line 212 to line 222.

Like what Tina said, the learners indeed make a phonological error in ‘here’s’ in line 211. After this, Tina asks the learners to follow her and read this sentence again from line 212. This strategy is similar to what her learners said in the interviews and what happened in Extract 6.2.2. However, the difference is that no errors are spotted when the learners say, ‘here you are’, in line 211 but Tina still asks the learners to read this sentence after her from there. Tina said the reason was that ‘*it’s a complete sentence in the coursebook.* (INT3)’.

213	Ls	Here you are, and here
214	Tina	*come on,* ((It)) *is* here, listen
215	L(un)	*yes.*
216	Tina	and
217	L(un)	and
218	Tina	here’s
219	Ls	and here your /ˈtʃeɪn(dʒʔ)/
	L(un)	/æn/
	L(un)	here’s
220	Tina	your (.) change
221	L(un)	your /ˈtʃeɪntʃ/
222	Tina	/ˈtʃeɪn..dʒ/
223	Ls	/ˈtʃeɪn..dʒ/

In line 213, some learners mispronounce 'here's' as 'here', after which Tina immediately interrupts the learners and asks them to listen to her pronunciation from line 214. This strategy is similar to the learners' claim in the interview that Tina would say '*listen to my pronunciation and let me finish it first. Then, you read it again* (INL4)'. In the above interaction, when the learners read the second half of this sentence 'and here's your change' after Tina, three phonological errors are heard, /æn/ (line 219), here (line 219), and /ˈtʃeɪntʃ/ (line 221). However, Tina only focuses on the correction of 'change' by combining a recast with an elongated sound in line 222 (/ˈtʃeɪn..dʒ/). After this, the learners follow Tina's utterance and pronounce 'change' with an elongated sound in line 223.

In the interview, after Tina and I watched the above video clip again, Tina specified that the learners had corrected the error in 'change', and this correction achieved the result she wanted. Additionally, Tina's CF strategy in line 222 is similar to the example her learners gave in the 1st learner interview that when they mispronounced 'bottle', Tina '*would stress the sound*' such as '/'**bɒ..**təl/' in response to the error '/'botəl/'. Lastly, if we look at Extract 6.3 as a whole, the mediation only takes one form, other-regulation by Tina. However, when Tina offers CF, she once again builds scaffolding from 212 to line 222. For example, she breaks down the second half of the sentence 'and here's your change' into three parts, 'and' (line 216), 'here's' (line 218), and 'your change' (line 220), as well as a short pause between 'your' and 'change' (line 222).

From the CO extracts presented so far, Tina uses recasts frequently, so in the interview, Tina and I kept discussing her use of a recast in line 222 (/ˈtʃeɪn..dʒ/) and whether the learners were able to notice her recast or not. Tina replied,

> '*It was also possible that some* slow *learners might not notice it, or the learner who made this error didn't notice it because not all of the learners concentrated on the lesson* (INT3)'.

To Tina, some learners who make an error in line 221 (/ˈtʃeɪntʃ/) may not produce any output in line 223. Tina's thought seems to coincide with what happened in class because the phonological error in 'change' occurred again 16 minutes after Extract 6.3 when two learners engaged in the role-play activity of the main texts of Unit 3 (see Extract 6.4 below) (see also Figure 6.3 and Extracts 6.2.1-6.2.2 above).

Extract 6.4 (CO2)

((Tina points at the texts on the posters when the learners read them.))

677 Tina *Ok, it's your turn.*
678 L1 here you are, /æn..d/ ((Tina uses her finger to circle 'here's'))
679 L(un) his
680 Tina ((using a marker to underline 'here's')) here's
681 L1 here's ((Tina uses a marker to underline 'here's' again)) you ((Tina changes from underlining 'your' to pointing at 'your' after this error))
682 Tina your ((pointing at 'your'))

683 L1 (your?)
684 L(un) your

685 Tina ((underlining 'change' and mouthing '/dʒ/'))
686 L(un) (/ˈtʃeɪntʃ/?)

L1 is the same learner who played the role of the Cash Register and made a phonological error in 'thirty' in Extracts 6.2.1-6.2.2. In line 678, L1 does not pronounce 'here's' even though Tina offers nonverbal assistance by using her finger to circle 'here's' on the poster. Thus, in line 680, Tina adopts another nonverbal strategy (underlining 'here's' on the poster), followed by a verbal recast (here's). After this, L1 successfully produces the correct output in line 681 (here's), but he makes a phonological error in 'your'. Tina then corrects this error instantly in line 682 by combining a recast (your) with a nonverbal strategy (pointing her finger at 'your' on the poster). Following Tina's CF, the utterance of L1 is not clear, but he seems to produce a correct output in line 683 (your?); nonetheless, he does not pronounce 'change' in spite of the nonverbal prompts of Tina in line 685 (underlining 'change' and mouthing '/dʒ/')). Thus, in line 687 below, Tina offers another kind of CF which is different from her strategies in line 680 and line 682 above.

687 Tina ((pointing at 'change')) ((You)) *don't know, ok, everyone, say it once,* ((keeping pointing at 'change')) /ˈtʃeɪn..dʒ/

688 Ls /ˈtʃeɪn..tʃ/
Ls /ˈtʃeɪn..dʒ/ ((Tina mouths 'change' and points at 'change'))

689 Tina *ok,* ((mouthing '/dʒ/' and preparing to underline 'change'))

690 L(un) *one more time*
change ((Tina underlines 'change'))

691 Tina *ok* ((underlining 'change'))

In line 680 and line 682 above, Tina offers a combination of a verbal recast with nonverbal strategies to L1. However, in line 687, after Tina offers the same nonverbal strategy (pointing at 'change' on the poster), she does not provide a recast to L1 solely. When Tina is still pointing at 'change' on the poster, she decides to draw the whole class's eye to this phonological error through verbal elicitation of the correct pronunciation (*ok, everyone, say it once*) plus a recast (change). In the interview, Tina accounted for her behaviour here,

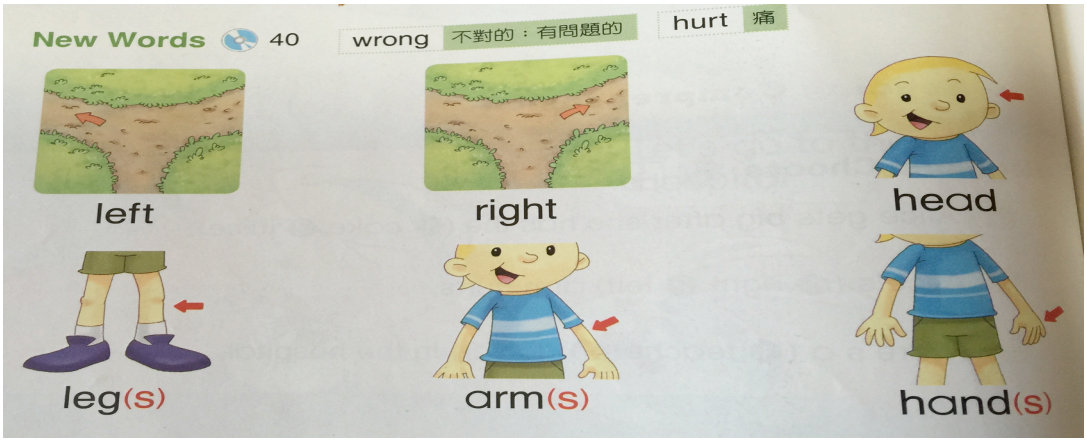
> '*This word wasn't pronounced well before, and L1 still made an error when he said it individually. Thus, everyone should* pay attention *and read it aloud once* (INT3)'.

Thus, in this extract, Tina's correction strategies are similar to the ones in Extract 6.3 above because she again broke down this sentence and erected scaffolding with three parts (line 680, line 682, and line 687). Besides, if we only look at Tina's verbal CF strategies here, it involved recasts solely or a combination of elicitation and a recast. However, the correction process became complex after considering verbal strategies and nonverbal strategies together. One of Tina's nonverbal strategies, underlining words, was also specified by the learners in the 1st learner interview and in the 3rd learner interview. Furthermore, in Extract 6.4 above, the mediation involved two forms, i.e. other-regulation by Tina and object-regulation by written texts on the poster, which again increase the complicatedness of the whole correction process. Lastly, from the CO extracts presented so far, it seems that recasts and pointing her finger at herself (e.g. mouth) or a word were common CF strategies Tina used to correct errors. Additionally, like Lily's classroom, the role-play activity in Tina's classroom did not invovle in any meaningful English communication.

6.6.3 Hands

As specified in Section 6.3, Tina focused on the pronunciation of words and sentences in the lessons I observed; thus, this section will give another example of this that Tina specified she had provided CF on. In CO4, when Tina was teaching Unit 4's new words (see Figure 6.4), she asked her learners to repeat the plural form of 'hand' after her, after which a phonological error in 'hands' occurred (see Extract 6.5 below).

Figure 6.4 Unit 4: Vocabulary (Page 38)



Extract 6.5 (CO4)
((Flashcards of the new words, together with pictures of these words (see Figure 6.4 above), designed by the coursebook publisher are attached on the blackboard by Tina.))

497 Tina *so, two hands* ((pointing at a picture)) *come on, say it once,* hands. ((using a finger to underline 'hands'))
498 L(un) hand

499 Ls hands
L /ˈhæn..dəs/

500 Tina *No, it is pronounced* 'hands'. ((using a finger to underline 'hands'))
501 L(un) hands

502 Ls /hæn..dz/ (hand?)

In this extract, following the phonological error in line 499 (/ˈhæn..dəz/), Tina provides instant CF by explicit correction in line 500, which includes an overt negative utterance (*no*), and the correct answer (hands). Concurrently, Tina also offers a nonverbal prompt through underlining 'hands' on the flashcard by her finger. In the interview, Tina felt that her learners understood her correction here because the pronunciation of '"hands" *and* "/ˈhæn..dəz/" *were very different* (INT5)'. Tina further claimed that the learners pronounced 'hands' correctly afterwards. However, the phonological error in 'hands' recurred later on in the same lesson. After this, Tina adopted another strategy to correct this phonological error, i.e. mediation by the coursebook's CD. This correction strategy happened at the end of CO4 when Tina asked the learners to listen to the CD reading aloud these 6 new words in English. Extract 6.6.1 started after the CD said, 'hands'.

Extract 6.6.1 (CO4)

989 Tina *ok, when you said this word* ((writing down 'hand' on the blackboard))
990 L(un) /heɪ..(d?)/
991 Tina *What did it* ((CD)) *say* (↑)

992 Ls /heɪ/
L(un) /ˈheɪ..dəs/ ((Tina writes down letter 's' on the blackboard))

993 Tina *Did you hear the sound of '/d/'* (↑) ((pointing at 'hands' on the blackboard))

994 L(un) *Yes*
L(un) *No*

995 L(un) /heɪ..s/
996 L(un) /hæn..(?)/
997 Tina *Did it* ((CD)) (↑)

Tina's class was the nosiest among the three classes presented here; thus, uncertain utterances (e.g. '/heɪ..(d?)/' in line 990 and '/hæn..(?)/' in line 996) were often seen in this chapter. Next, even though the coursebook's CD just read aloud 'hands' and Tina writes down 'hands' on the blackboard in line 989 and line 992, as well as asking the learners if they heard the CD pronouncing the sound of '/d/' in line 993, an incorrect answer and an erroneous utterance of 'hands' are still observed in line 994 (*yes*) and line 995 (/heɪ..s/) respectively. After this, the standard English pronunciation of the CD is used as an error correction method in line 997 because Tina tries to elicit the correct pronunciation of 'hands' from her learners by asking them if the CD pronounced the sound of '/d/' or not. However, an incorrect answer and an erroneous utterance are still heard in line 998 below.

998 Ls *no*
L *yes*
L(un) /hæn../
L(un) /hæn..s/

999 Tina *It* ((CD)) *said* /ˈhæn..dəz/ *or said* /hæn..z/*?* ((pointing at 'hands' on the blackboard))

In response to the repeated errors in line 998, Tina's CF strategy in line 999 becomes more explicit. Similar to line 997, Tina tries to elicit the correct pronunciation of 'hands' from the learners in line 999, but this time, Tina offers two options for the

learners and says these two utterances with elongated sounds (*it said* '/ˈhæn..dəz/' *or said* '/hæn..z/'). Meanwhile, Tina points at 'hands' on the blackboard to offer a written prompt for the learners. Unfortunately, the errors are not resolved in line 1000 below.

1000	Ls	/hæn..z/
	Ls	/hæn..dəz/
	L(un)	/ˈhæn..dəs/
	L(un)	/ˈhæn..dədʒ/
1001	Tina	*Was there a sound of '/d/'* (↑)
1002	L(un)	*ought to be* /ˈhæn..dəs/
1003	L(un)	*yes*
	Ls	*no*
	L(un)	/ˈhæn..dəz/
1004	Tina	*Ok, it's all right. Let's listen* ((to the CD)) *again*.

The phonetic sound, '/d/', should not be heard when saying 'hands'; however, in line 1000 above, several learners still pronounce the sound, '/d/' ('/hæn..dəz/', '/ˈhæn..dəs/', and '/ˈhæn..dədʒ/'). Thus, Tina's strategy in line 1001 only focuses on this phonological error (*was there a sound of* '/d/'). Nonetheless, the errors still reoccurred in line 1002 and line 1003; thus, in line 1004, Tina decides to resolve these errors through the use of the coursebook's CD again (*Let's listen* ((to the CD)) *again*.).

Consequently, the scaffolding Tina builds again moves from a more implicit CF in line 997 (*did it*) to a more explicit CF in line 999 where her utterances attempts to include the provision of the correct pronunciation (/ˈhændz/), as well as an elongated sound prior to the learners' error. Next, in line 1001, her CF becomes even more explicit because she only focuses on the erroneous sound, '/də/'. Additionally, the error treatment process of Tina in this extract takes multiple forms of mediation, i.e. object-regulation by the CD before this extract, followed by a combination of other-regulation by Tina with object-regulation by the written prompt on the blackboard in this extract, and lastly, object-regulation by the CD again after this extract.

The findings here again imply that the correction of an error was neither a simple process nor a single exchange. Additionally, the same error still occurred in Extract 6.6.1 even Tina claimed earlier that her learners understood her correction and successfully corrected the error in Extract 6.5. In the interview, I also discussed Extract 6.6.1 with Tina, and she replied,

> *'It's my teaching style that after I finish it, I ask the learners to listen to the* CD. *However, they still pronounced '/ˈheɪ..dəs/' very loudly. Thus, I hoped they listened to the* CD *again to tell the differences between these two sounds* (INT5).*'*

What Tina said and what has happened in the interaction match her claim in the 1st interview that '*I would tell them to listen to the CD's pronunciation carefully, tell them the difference, and remind them* (INT1)'. Extract 6.6.2 below happened after the learners listened to the CD reading aloud the 6 new words again.

Extract 6.6.2 (CO4)

1024 Tina *Did you hear it* (↑)

1025 Ls *yes*
L(un) /hed/
L(un) /hæn../
L(un) *not saying '/s/'*
L(un) *It had '/d/'*

1026 Tina *Did it say it* (↑) ((pointing at 'hands' on the blackboard))

1027 Ls *No*
1028 Tina *Did it say the sound of '/d/'?* ((pointing at 'hands'))

After Tina's question in line 1024, her learners still produce erroneous responses in line 1025 (e.g. '*it had* "/d/"'). Thus, in line 1028, Tina instantly draws the learners' attention to this repeated error by asking the learners if the CD said the sound of '/d/' or not. Meanwhile, Tina points at 'hands' on the blackboard to offer a written prompt. Following Tina's CF, the learners finally produce a correct response in line 1029 and line 1030.

1029 Ls *No*
1030 L(un) *No, (just?), (*/d/*?), No*
1031 Tina *Yes, so* ((you)) *should remember it.* ((pointing at 'hands')) *Although it*

said /hæn..d/ *in the singular* ((using her hand to erase letter 's' in the air and then to cover letter 's')), *if adding* ((an)) *'s'* ((using her finger to write letter 's' in the air)), *it is pronounced 'hands'* ((pointing at 'hands'))

1032 L(un) ((I)) *guessed* ((the answer)) *correctly.*
1033 L(un) (no?), (/hæn/?)
1034 L(un) *but adding an 's' ((is)) different.*

1035 L(un) /hæn..d/
L(un) /hæn..z/
L(un) /hæn(z?)/

1036 Tina hands ((pointing at 'hands' and nodding her head))

1037 L(un) /hændz/
L(un) /hæn..d/
L(un) /hæn..dz/
L(un) /hæn../

1038 L(un) (?)
1039 Tina *Right, is it* okay (↑)
1040 L(un) okay ((in a weird sound))

It can be noticed that phonological errors in 'hands' still occur in line 1035 and line 1037, but these errors are not as serious as the ones shown in Extract 6.6.1 ('/ˈhæn..dəz/' and '/ˈhæn..dəs/'). Consequently, the coursebook CD's standard pronunciation seems to function as one kind of CF strategies, recasts. A combination of Tina's CF, the written prompt on the blackboard, and the CD appears to help the learners gradually take over the correct pronunciation of 'hands'.

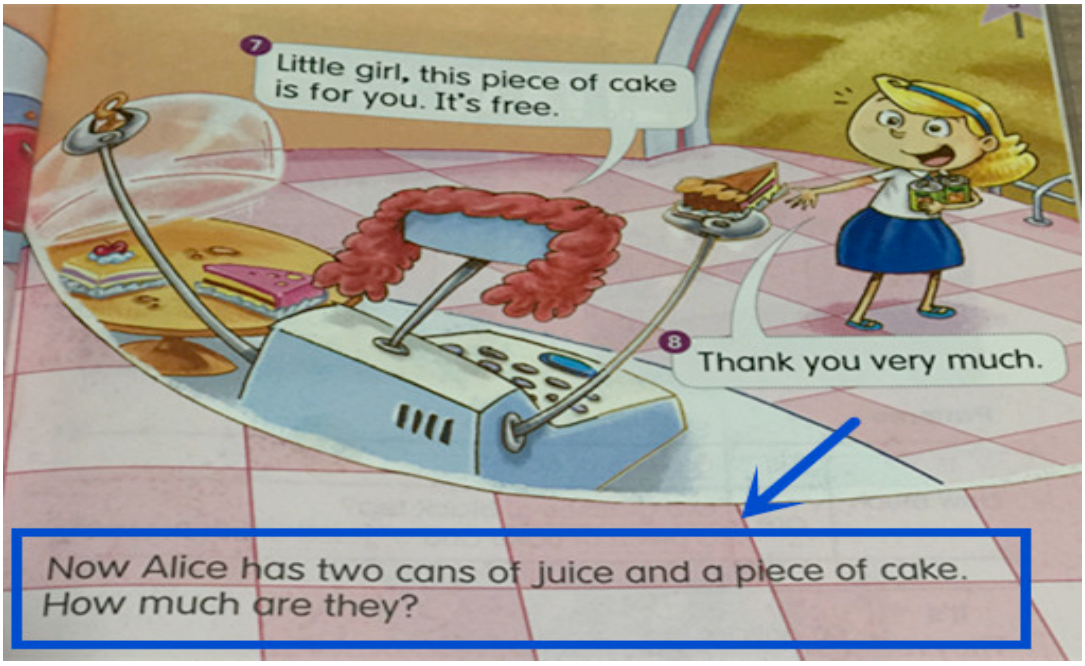
From the CO extracts presented so far, unlike Amy whose nonverbal CF usually involved the use of facial expressions, Tina's nonverbal CF was similar to Lily's because both of them used hand gesture often (e.g. pointing her finger at a word). Nonetheless, Tina's nonverbal CF also involved underlining or circling a word or an English letter. Besides, Tina's correction strategies included the use of posters, flashcards, and the coursebook CD. Lastly, like what Tina said in the interview, she corrected phonological errors immediately after they occurred (see Section 6.4 above).

6.6.4 They

In this section, I will present Tina's correction of a phonological error in the word 'they' because this example involved one feature that emerged from the findings – CF immediately following positive feedback. When I observed Tina's lessons, I found she often praised her learners, e.g. saying 'good'. This positive feedback was also pointed out by the learners in three interviews, i.e. INL1, INL2, and INL4. Ellis (2009) claimed that positive feedback could often be vague because 'good' may be followed by teachers' CF. The corresponding CO data were found in Tina's class because she often said 'good' or equivalent positive feedback right before she provided CF on her learners' errors (see line 668 of Extract 6.2.2 above). This finding was noticed when I observed Tina's lessons in Taiwan and became noticeable when I analysed the CO data. Examples of this finding will be shown below.

In CO2, Tina asked her learners to read aloud the main texts of Unit 3 after the CD sentence by sentence, after which Tina said, 'good, are they' (see Figure 6.5 and Extract 6.7 below). I noted this down and discussed it with Tina in the interview.

Figure 6.5 Unit 3: The Main Texts (Page 25)



Extract 6.7 (CO2)

236 CD Now Alice has two cans of juice and a piece of cake. How much are they (↑)

237 Tina *Ok, read it once.*

238 L(un) How mu(ch?)

239 Ls Now Alice (can) two (cans) /o..hu/ juice and a (piece)
L(un) (/to/) (can) (/pi:tʃ/)
L(un)

Ls (/o..hu/) /keɪ/. How /mʌ/ (are) (they (↑))
Ls (/o/) (/ðer/)
L(un) (/ə../)

There are several errors above, and the correct utterances are 'Now, Alice has two cans of juice and a piece of cake. How much are they?'.

240 Tina /gu:/, are /leɪ/

Tina also makes phonolgoical errors abvoe. The correct utterances are 'good, are they'.

241 Ls are (they)
Ls (/leɪ/)

242 Tina /gu:/, *ok, let's turn back and see what the texts are talking about. Please turn to page twenty-one.*

In this extract, the learners make several phonological errors in line 239, after which Tina says, '/gu:/, are /leɪ/' in line 240, which means 'good, are they'. Then, some of her learners repeat 'are they' with the correct utterances (are they), but some learners produce incorrect responses (are /leɪ/) in line 241. Lastly, Tina praised them again in line 242. In the interview, I asked Tina whether her utterances, 'good, are they', were positive feedback that she repeated the correct utterances of her learners or whether they were error correction. After watching this video clip, Tina replied,

> '*Someone said "/ðer/", so I told them "*are they*". Some said it correctly, and some said it incorrectly. I might have said "*good*" to praise those who said it correctly. Then, I heard the error so told them that* (INT3)'.

Seedhouse (2010: 5) stated that 'a single utterance may be simultaneously expressing approval on one level...nonetheless conducting correction on another level'. The

behaviour of Tina seems to fulfil the claim made by Ellis (2009) and Seedhouse (2010) (see also Section 2.3). However, it was found that sometimes Tina praised her learners unconsciously. An example will be given below.

6.6.5 Dollars

In the first interview, Tina gave an example of a mispronunciation of 'apples' as '/ˈæpəls/' (see Section 6.4). A similar example was found when Tina's learners were answering a question related to the main texts, 'Now, Alice has two cans of juice and a piece of cake. How much are they?' (see Figure 6.5 above and Extract 6.8 below). This example came up in the same lesson as the example of 'good, are they' above. The above example happened when the learners read this sentence after the CD, and the example below occurred when they were giving the answer to this question.

Extract 6.8 (CO2)

604	Ls	/ðer/ are forty dollars. /ˈdɒlə..z/
605	Tina	they /ər/ ((looking at her learners, with her finger facing down and pointing twice when saying 'they're'
606	L(un)	((making a slightly impatient sound))
607	Ls	/ðer/ they /ə../ forty dollars /ˈdɒləs/ ((Tina looks at her coursebook))
608	Tina	good, dollars. ((looking at her coursebook))
609	Ls	/da/
610	L(un)	/ˈdɒlə..s/
611	Tina	*Yes, wasn't it easy* (↑)
612	Ls	*yes*

After watching the above video clip, Tina said, '*you see, they said '/z/' for the first time* ((i.e. line 604)) *but '/s/' for the second time* ((i.e. line 607)). *Wasn't it obvious?* (INT3)'. What Tina meant is that in line 604, the learners pronounce the plural form of 'dollar' correctly (dollars), but in line 607, the learners make a phonological error and say '/ˈdɒləs/'. Following this error, Tina firstly praises her learners (good) and then offers an instant CF strategy by recast (dollars) in line 608. In the interview, I asked Tina if she noticed that she praised the learners before the correction. Tina replied, '*really* (INT3)', in a doubtful tone. Then, we watched this clip again, after

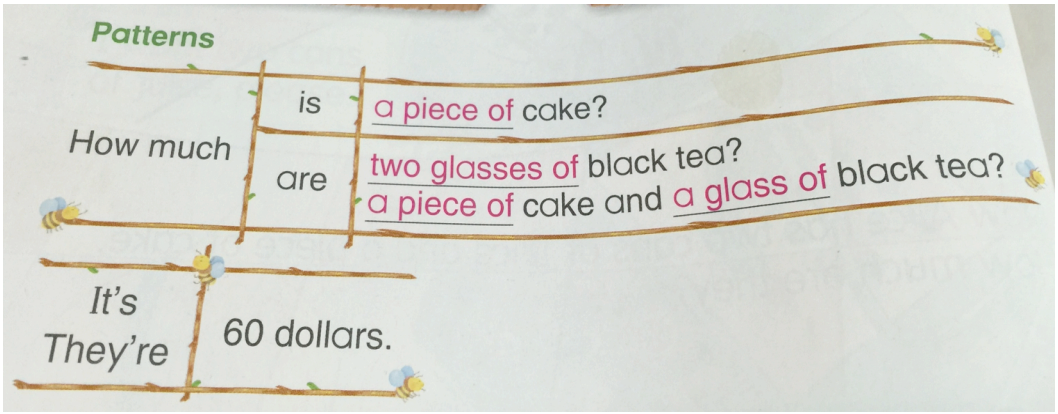
which Tina explained that she might have said 'good' unconsciously. Thus, Tina's behaviour here, positive feedback followed by CF, does not match the claim made by Seedhouse (2010) because Tina did not intend to express both approval and correction in a single utterance.

6.6.6 Cake

In this section, I will present examples of the learners' phonological errors involving language play. When I observed the lessons, similar kinds of phonological errors recurred in class, e.g. '/keɪ**kə**/' (cake), '/ˈpɪŋ**kə**/' (pink), and '/ˈsɪŋ**gə**ɪŋ/' (singing). These kinds of errors were discussed in the teacher interviews and also specified by Tina's learners in the learner interviews. For example, in INL1, one learner said, '/k/, /keɪ/, /keɪ/, /keɪ/, pronounce it (('/k/')) *gently…Sometimes, the learners in the back would say* "/keɪ**kə**/" (INL1)'. In INL4, one learner said that some learners pronounced the word 'sting' as '/stɪŋ**gə**/'; Tina corrected them by saying, '*I just said letter "g" was voiceless*'. In this section, I will present the example related to the error in 'cake' because one learner in INL3 said he pronounced '/kə/' deliberately.

These kinds of errors firstly took place in CO1, so Tina and I discussed one of these errors in the 2nd teacher interview, in which Tina said that her learners pronounced 'cake' too forcefully by saying '/ˈkeɪ**kə**/' in CO1. Then, this error became notable in CO2; in the interview, Tina said, '*There were two learners who pronounced '/kə/' very loudly. They kept pronouncing* "/keɪ**kə**/", "/keɪ**kə**/", "/keɪ**kə**/" (INT3)'. What Tina said was the moment when she started to teach the sentence patterns of Unit 3 (see Figure 6.6 and Extract 6.9 below).

Figure 6.6 Unit 3: Sentence Patterns (Page 26)



Extract 6.9 (CO2)

129	Tina	((writing on the blackboard)) *Ok, this unit mainly teaches this pattern (.) these two patterns. Let's read them aloud once.*
130	Ls L3	How much is a piece of [cake (↑) /keɪ**kə..**/]
131	Tina	good, cake

Following the error in line 130, Tina again praises the learners before she offers CF.

132	Ls L3	[cake /keɪ**kə**/]
133	Tina	cake

Tina corrects the error instantly by recast.

134	Ls L3	[cake /keɪ**kə**/]
135	Tina	'/k/' *is voiceless, so pronounce* 'cake'.

Following the repeated error in 'cake', Tina firstly explains the correct pronunciation of '/k/' ('/k/' *is voiceless*), after which she provides a recast (cake).

136	L(un)	/keɪ**kə**/
137	Tina	*that* '/k/' *(.) too (?)* '/k/'.
138	L(un)	/k/, /kə/
139	L(un)	/kə/
140	Tina	*ok, next, the answer*

After watching this video clip, Tina mentioned 3 times that L3 above pronounced '/kə/' with a very loud sound. Tina said that this was a '*very obvious error. When it's a very obvious error, you must correct it* (INT3)'. After this, the same error, '/kə/', happened again in the next lesson I observed. Then, one learner in the interview specified that he firstly did not know he made a phonological error in 'cake'. After he noticed that this was an error, he started to make this error on purpose. Consequently, like Amy's learners, the language play on English sounds was also made by Tina's learners.

The language play by learners was not only specified by a learner himself in the interview but also pointed out by Tina and her learners in class. For example, in CO3, when a learner once again played the language and pronounced '/**gə**/' loudly, Tina said '*You did it deliberately, didn't you?*'. Then, another learner immediately said, '*He did it on purpose*'. Shortly after this, the same phonological error, '/**gə**/', occurred again, so one of Tina's learners offered peer correction and said, '*No "*/**gə**/"'. After this, Tina specified the learner who played the language, '*Yang-Pin Cheng did it on purpose*'. In CO4, after the same kind of error happened again, Tina firstly had a one-second pause, after which she said, '*Hsin-Hong Chen, you pronounced it* ((/**kə**/)) *loudly on purpose, didn't you?* (CO4)'. Similar strategies were also mentioned by the learners in the 3rd interview; they indicated that Tina's correction strategy included '*calling names. Wang-Pin Yang, you pronounced it incorrectly, read it again*' and '*gazing at one learner plus calling his name* (INL3)'.

These kinds of errors had been happening since CO1 and became noticeable in CO3 and CO4. Thus, a few learners in CO3 and CO4 specified in class that their peers made the errors on purpose or offered peer corrections. Tina also mentioned 6 times in CO3 that the learners made this error intentionally. At the beginning of INT4, without watching any video clips, Tina already pointed out that many pronunciations like the above examples occurred in CO3. Consequently, sentences like '"/k/" *should be voiceless*', '*Why was there a* ___*'s* ((e.g. 'kə')) *sound*', and '*No* ___' (e.g. 'kə')' were often repeated by Tina or her learners. One of Tina's CF strategies in CO3 that '*letter* "g" *is voiceless. Didn't I tell you to put a cross on it*' was similar to what the learners said in the 3rd interview that Tina might write down the incorrect answer, '*put a cross, 'X', on it*', and told them '*no such sound*'. All of these findings imply that this continuous, deliberate play on phonetic sounds seems to become unacceptable by Tina and her learners at the end of my classroom observations so these intentional errors should be corrected immediately in class. These findings also suggest that learners' language play created many opportunities for Tina's CF to take place in the lessons I observed.

6.7 Corrective Feedback on the Grammatical Error in 'Dollar'

Tina specified in the interview that she provided CF on grammatical errors (see Sections 6.4). The learners also pointed out Tina's corrections of grammar errors. However, the majority of the grammatical errors were either written errors or a combination of written errors on the blackboard followed by oral errors. For example, the learners in the 4th interview said that when they played a game in CO4, '*one person wrote it* ((a word)) *incorrectly. Then, the teacher said, "revise it and read it again before you go back to your seat"* (INL4)'. The learners in the 2nd interview also said, '*When that* 'dollar' *didn't add an 's', the teacher would correct it immediately by saying 'dollars', not 'dollar'* (INL2)'. My research focuses on oral errors, and the coding criterion is the classroom data the teachers specified as CF practices. Thus, the following will present an example which Tina identified as one of CF practices on an oral grammatical error.

Tina spent more than two lessons teaching the coursebook's Unit 3, whose title was 'How much is a bottle of milk?'; thus, the word, 'dollars', was said frequently in class. Tina's CF on a phonological error in 'dollar' was presented in Section 6.6.5 above. Below, I will present her CF on an oral grammatical error in 'dollar', which happened when Tina was teaching the sentence patterns of Unit 3 (see Figure 6.6 above and Extract 6.10 below)

Extract 6.10 (CO2)

((The poster of the sentence patterns in Figure 6.6 is attached to the blackboard by Tina. Tina points at the texts on the poster when her learners are reading them.))

142	Tina	*If this dollar* ((her finger circling 'dollar')) *more than one dollar* ((her finger gesturing number '*1*')), *for example, two dollars* ((her finger gesturing number '*2*')), *this* dollar *needs to add* ((an)) 's'. ((her finger circling letter 's'))
143	L(un)	/eɪ..s/
144	Tina	*If* ((there's)) *only one dollar, you say, 'It's one dollar'.* ((her finger gesturing number '*1*'))
145	Ls	It's one dollar.
	Ls	/i:/
	L4	**It's one dollars.**
146	Tina	((turning her head to look at L4)) *No 's'.* ((looking at L4 plus gesturing a 'stop' sign with a palm))

		It's one (.) dollar	((while nodding her head, her finger pointing out number '*1*', and her head moving from looking at L4 towards the direction of looking at the poster again – but not yet)).
147	Ls	one..dollar	
148	Tina	((Gesturing a 'stop' sign with her palm and her face looking serious and staring at another side of the classroom before looking at the poster – because she was listening to the learners' response)) *Right.*	

In this extract, a grammatical error occurred in line 145 when L4 said 'it's one dollars'. In the interview, after watching the above video clip, Tina said, '*because the learners may not know that when there's only 'one', a dollar doesn't need to add an 's'* (INT3)'. Tina's explanation sounds reasonable because in Chinese, there is no need to change the form of a noun no natter it is singular or plural. Following the grammatical error in line 145 (one dollars), Tina instantly provides a nonverbal CF move through gazing at L4 in line 146. When Tina is still looking at L4, she provides explicit correction (*No 's'*. It's one (.) dollar) with a short pause between 'one' and 'dollar', enabling her correction of this grammatical error (one dollars) to become more salient. Simultaneously, Tina offers different kinds of nonverbal CF moves, i.e. gesturing a 'stop' sign with a palm, nodding her head, and finger pointing out Number 1. During Tina's complex CF moves, the learners in line 147 produce an accurate response (one..dollar) alongside Tina's utterance (one (.) dollar) in line 146. Furthermore, after the learners just finished their utterances in line 147, Tina in line 148 immediately provides a nonverbal CF move by gesturing a 'stop' sign with her palm, which appears to prevent her learners from adding an erroneous 's' and making the same grammatical error again.

Existing CF studies focus on verbal CF teachers have provided. Thus, from their viewpoint, the successful response of the learners in line 147 results from Tina's verbal CF in line 146. However, according to the above analysis, the correct utterances of the learners may indeed result from Tina's combination of verbal CF and nonverbal CF, as well as her tactical pause (one (.) dollar). Additionally, this extract also matches what Tina said in the 1st interview that she would correct errors in singular nouns and plural nouns even if they were not the focus of that lesson (see Section 6.4). It can also be noticed that Tina offers the above series of nonverbal

strategies and verbal strategies to achieve one purpose – helping the learner who has made a linguistic error to produce an accurate, grammatical form (one dollar). The above interaction also partially coincides with what one learner said in the 3rd interview that when he pronounced a word incorrectly, Tina '*looked at me; then, she said the correct English and asked the whole class to read it again*'.

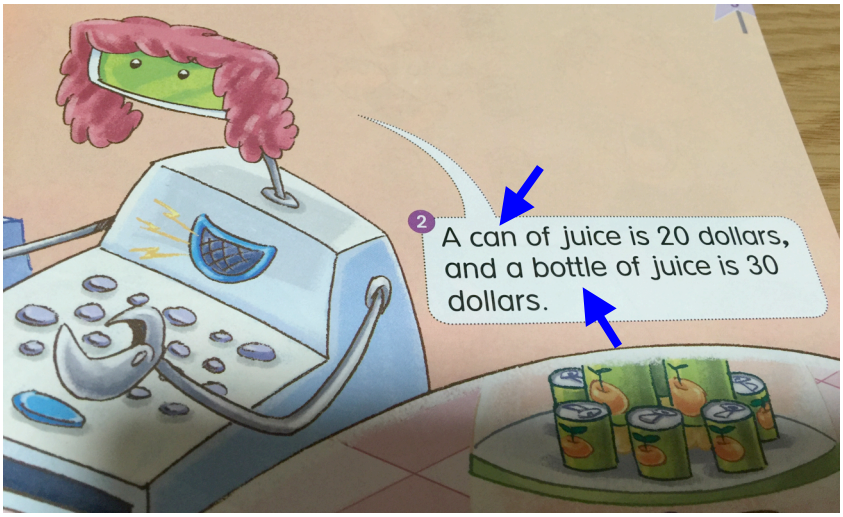
6.8 Corrective Feedback on Translation Errors

In the lessons I observed, Tina often asked her learners the Chinese translations of English words or sentences. This seems to open up opportunities for translation errors to occur in class and thus 6 examples regarding Tina's CF on translation errors were found. This section will present two examples I discussed with Tina in the interviews.

6.8.1 Bottle

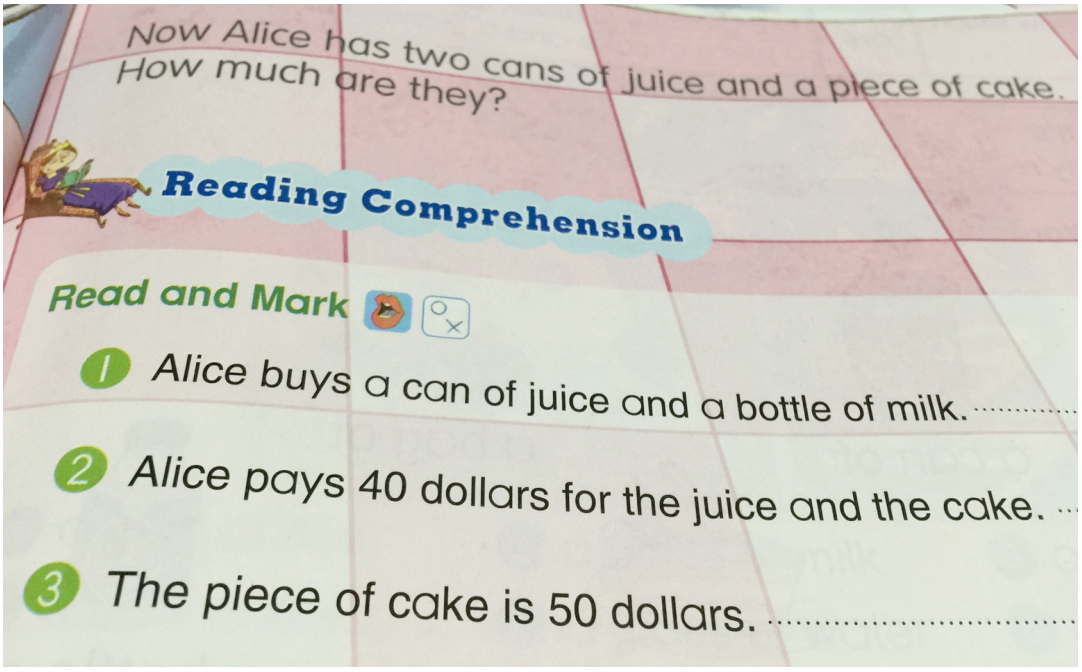
When Tina was teaching the main texts of Unit 3 (see Figure 6.7 below), she explained the Chinese meaning of 'can' and 'bottle' and specified that they were different: '*a can,* a can*. Then,* a bottle *is a bottle, so the prices are different* (CO2)'.

Figure 6.7 Unit 3: The Main Texts (Page 23)



Later, the class engaged in a reading comprehension activity in relation to Unit 3's main texts (see Figure 6.8 below), and Tina asked her learners the Chinese translations of Question 1 (see Extract 6.11 below).

Figure 6.8 Unit 3: Reading Comprehension Questions (Page 25)



Extract 6.11 (CO2)

432	Tina	*ok, Question One, the first one,* ((I)) *just said, what is 'buy'* (↑) ((asking the learners the Chinese translation of 'buy'.))
433	L(un)	*(Two cans?)*
434	L(un)	*She buys two cans.*
435	L(un)	(?)
436	Ls	*buy*
437	Tina	*yes, so what does it say* (↑) ((asking the learners the Chinese translation of Question One))
438	L(un)	*she buys*
439	Ls	*a can of juice and a can of milk* ((Tina mouths the answer while looking at her coursebook))

A translation error occurs because the learners translated 'a bottle of milk' as '*a can of milk*'.

440	Tina	Bottle *is a bottle.*	((while looking at the learners plus her left finger gesturing number '1'))
441	L(un)	*a bottle of milk*	
442	Tina	*so, a bottle of what* (↑)	
443	Ls	*a bottle of milk.*	

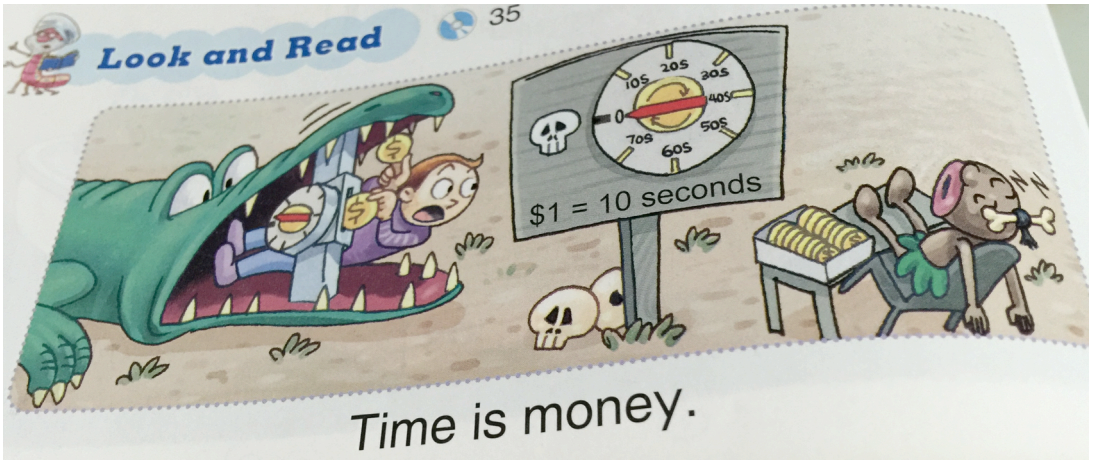
In this interaction, when a translation error occurs in line 439 (incorrectly translating 'bottle' as '*can*'), Tina immediately corrects this error in line 440 by a combination

of a verbal explicit correction (bottle *is a bottle*), with two nonverbal moves, i.e. a gaze and finger gesture. After this, no errors are spotted. In the 3rd interview, Tina felt this correction strategy was effective because she said that '*the learners knew it right away. They corrected it. They said a bottle of, didn't they?*'. In the interview, I also mentioned that I heard a learner translated 'free' into '*cheap*' in class. Tina did not hear it, but she claimed that if she had heard a learner say '*cheap*', she '*might have told him that this word means 'free', not 'cheap* (INT3)'. She further explained, '*I would have told him directly. I would have told him very specifically because this meaning cannot be confused* (INT3)'. Tina's claim matches exactly her correction in line 440 above. Consequently, like her correction of grammatical errors, Tina also used an explicit correction strategy when there was a translation error.

6.8.2 Second

The coursebook used in Tina's class had one proverb in each unit. Extract 6.12 below happened when Tina was teaching Unit 3's proverb (see Figure 6.9 below).

Figure 6.9 Unit 3: The Proverb (Page 32)



Extract 6.12 (CO4)

301	Tina	*How* ((do you)) *say this* (↑) Time is money.
302	Ls	Time
	Ls	/taɪn/
		is /ˈmʌ..ni/.
303	Tina	*What is* /taɪn/ (↑) ((asking the Chinese translation of 'time'))
304	Ls	*time.*
305	Tina	*right, so, time is what* (↑)
306	Ls	*money.*

307 Tina Good, *have you seen it* (↑) *One dollar is ten minutes (.) ten seconds. Have* ((you)) *seen it* (↑)

As shown in Figure 6.9 above, one dollar is 10 seconds. Thus, Tina makes an error above saying that '*one dollar is ten minutes*', but she instantly self-correct it.

308 L(un) *It's so good.*
309 Tina *right, ok, so come on, say it once,* (/taɪn/?) is money.

310 Ls [Time] is money.
Ls [(/taɪn/?)]

311 Tina *So what is time* (↑)
312 Ls *money*
313 L5 *Isn't it 'minute'* (↑) *Ten minutes.*

L5 makes a translation error because he thinks that 'second' means '*minute*' in Chinese.

314 Tina *That* second *is 'second'.*

According to Figure 6.9, one dollar is 10 seconds. In line 313, L5 assumed that the Chinese translation of 'second' is 'minute'. Thus, he raises this question and says, '*Isn't it 'minute'? Ten minutes.*' Following this translation error in line 313, Tina again offers an explicit correction in line 314 (*that* second *is 'second'*). In INT5, after watching the above video clip, Tina explained that she must tell the learner the correct answer explicitly '*because he didn't learn this vocabulary before. If you hadn't told him that he was wrong or hadn't told him this answer, he might remember the incorrect answer thereafter* (INT5)'. Tina further pointed out that '*unless he had had a dictionary, he might remember the wrong translation if you hadn't told him the correct answer immediately* (INT5)'. Johnson (1992) specified that learners' unexpected behaviour in class can affect teachers' CF decisions in class. What happened in the above interaction as well as Tina's explanation in the interview imply that this learner's unexpected translation error in 'second' influenced Tina's classroom practices because she decided to provide CF on this error.

Consequently, compared Tina's tolerant attitudes towards the learners' phonological errors, she appears to have a strong belief in correcting translation errors – she had to correct these errors immediately and explicitly so that the learners would not remember the incorrect translations thereafter.

6.9 Summary

From the findings presented here, Tina always provided immediate CF after an oral English occurred. She also adopted verbal CF strategies that are identified in existing CF studies. However, salient findings also emerged from Tina's class: no meaningful English communication, focus-on-forms instruction, word drilling, sentence pattern drilling, focus on word level accuracy, and focus on Chinese translations of English words and Chinese translations of English sentences. Additionally, Tina also combined verbal CF strategies with nonverbal CF strategies such as using a finger to point at a word or gesture a number, gazing at specific learners, underlining words, hand gesture, and written prompts on the blackboard. Furthermore, the error treatments of Tina took multiple forms of mediation, i.e. other-regulation by Tina or the learners; object-regulation by the coursebook, coursebook CD, flashcards, posters, and written prompts on the blackboard. Moreover, when Tina corrected errors, she also built scaffolding or praised the learners before she offered CF. For example, when Tina corrected phonological errors, she might erect scaffolding from more implicit CF strategies to more explicit CF strategies. On the other hand, Tina tended to correct grammatical errors and translation errors explicitly so that her learners would not remember the incorrect utterances. Lastly, the intentional and consecutive language play by the learners was a salient feature in Tina's class. All of these features appear to either open up or close down the opportunities for certain types of learner errors to occur in class and then affect the types of errors Tina corrected in class.

Chapter 7
Discussion

7.1 Introduction

The findings of these three classrooms were presented on a case-by-case basis in Chapters 4-6. The perspectives of these teachers on error and CF influenced their CF practices in class. In the light of SCT, the results found these teachers considered the ZPD of individual learners, took multiple forms of mediation, and built scaffolding when they treated the learner errors. The results also revealed these teachers adopted different kinds of CF strategies when they corrected the errors of their learners. On the other hand, the learners of this study were all children aged around 12, so they were different from the majority of the CF studies which researched into adult classrooms. The learners of these three classrooms also played the language deliberately, which then influenced the teachers' CF in class. Consequently, the findings of this study suggest that current literature on CF is inadequate to capture what actually happens in the classrooms I observed. The justification of this statement will start with the error types the teachers corrected in class.

7.2 Error Types

Error analysis was not the focus of my study; instead, the focus was on when the teachers corrected oral English errors in class and how they corrected these errors in class. Thus, I will review the errors the teachers corrected first. After this, building on the discussion in Section 3.10 where I illustrated why the traditional approach to data analysis does not work for this study, I will continue with additional points here.

Table 7.1 below summarises all of the CF extracts presented in Chapters 4-6, some of which are also presented in Appendices 6-8. The following will discuss the findings which are of particular relevance to the problematic issues in CF studies reviewed in Part Two of Chapter 2. Sections 7.3-7.7 relate to the error types these three teachers corrected in class, and Section 7.8 illustrates the consideration of the teachers for individual learner differences and a need to research into elementary

Table 7.1 The Errors Amy, Lily, and Tina Corrected in Class

	Amy's Class	Lily's Class	Tina's Class
Phonological-Related Errors, including spelling errors and intonation errors	the (/ðə/) (Section 4.6.1) the (/ði:/) (4.6.1) ship (4.6.2) fly (4.7)	sore throat (Section 5.6.1) should (5.6.2) Yes, I do have a toothache (5.6.3.1) Do you have a fever, too (5.6.3.2)	thirty (Section 6.6.1) Here's your change (6.6.2) hands (6.6.3) they (6.6.4) dollars (6.6.5) cake (6.6.6)
Grammatical Errors	Where are you from? (4.8)	he (5.7.2) Yes, he does (5.7.2)	dollar (6.7)
Translation Errors	get up (4.9)		bottle (6.8.1) second (6.8.2)
Errors Occurring during the Text Recitation Activities	yep (4.10) oh, thank you (4.10)		

EFL classrooms in Taiwan. Section 7.9 further discusses the problematic issues in instructional focus and data coding, after which the findings on timing of providing CF, either immediate CF or delayed CF, will be reviewed in Section 7.10. From Section 7.11, the discussion will be the central focus of this study – how these teachers provided CF on oral errors in class.

7.3 The Perspectives of the Teachers on Errors and Corrective Feedback

It was found that the views of the teachers on what counts as an error had an influence on the type of errors these teachers corrected in class. In Amy's classroom, she engaged in text recitation activities in every lesson I observed. When the learners did not recite the same texts exactly as was shown in the coursebook, Amy sometimes regarded these utterances as errors and then provided CF, in the case of 'yep' and 'oh, thank you'. When Amy explained her CF on the phonological error regarding the pronunciation of the definite article, 'the', and the translation error in 'get up', she mentioned individual learners' varying English proficiency and proposed that these learners made mistakes rather than errors. This reveals that Amy

provided CF on both errors and mistakes on the basis of the definition of an error and a mistake of the existing literature (Corder, 1967). In Lily's classroom, she specified that English intonation was important in the interview, so she offered CF when she personally thought the learners made an intonation error, e.g. 'yes, I do have a toothache' and 'do you have a fever, too'. In Tina's classroom, she thought the Chinese translations of an English word should be accurate, so she needed to correct translation errors immediately to avoid the learners from forming a bad habit and remembering the wrong translations. Like Amy, when Tina talked about her CF on the phonological error in 'thirty', what Tina said also proposed that the learners made mistakes rather than errors according to the definition of the existing literature such as Corder (1967).

The perspectives of these teachers on errors and CF also affected the amount of time they spent on the correction of an error or influenced the frequency of the errors they corrected in class because the same errors sometimes recurred in the same lessons or even re-visited in different lessons. In Amy's classroom, she emphasised the differences between a long vowel sound and a short vowel sound as well as the accurate pronunciation of the definite article, so these errors recurred in the lessons I observed such as in the extracts dealing with 'ship' and 'the'. Amy provided both immediate CF and delayed CF on a grammatical error in the sentence 'where are you from' because she felt it was a serious error. In Lily's classroom, when an error belonged to the supplementary materials or when an error resulted from a word that the learners did not need to use in elementary English classrooms from her viewpoint, Lily tended not to provide written prompts on the blackboard or very explicit CF. This may be one of the reasons which led to the reoccurrence of the errors in different lessons, e.g. 'should'. When grammar was the focus of a lesson, Lily also corrected the incorrect use of pronouns, e.g. 'yes, he does'. In Tina's classroom, she insisted that the tongue should be stuck out when the learners said 'thirty'. She also insisted on the correct pronunciation of 'change'. Thus, she corrected these phonological errors for several times in class.

The reoccurrence of errors then had an influenced on the CF strategies Lily and Tina adopted in class. Lily claimed she offered more explicit CF after the error in 'should'

kept recurring in class. Tina provided a more detailed explanation as well as more explicit CF when the learners repeatedly made a phonological error in 'thirty'.

7.4 Language Used in Class

The findings of this study suggested that the language these teachers used in class, either Chinese or English, had an influenced on the types of errors they corrected in class. In Amy's classroom and in Tina's classroom, both of them provided CF when the learners translated an English word or phrase into Chinese incorrectly, i.e. 'get up' in Amy's class and both 'bottle' and 'second' in Tina's class. This type of error correction is common in EFL classrooms when teachers and learners share the same first language and also when teachers instruct using mainly the first language. Yet, none of the following meta-analysis studies mention teachers' corrections of translation errors, i.e. Brown (2016), Li (2010), Lyster and Saito (2010), Mackey and Goo (2007), and Russell and Spada (2006). One possible reason is that CF studies often researched into classrooms where the teacher and the learners do not share the same first languages. This then closes down the chances of making translation errors. Additionally, existing CF studies examine the frequency and effectiveness of CF through a deductive, quantitative analysis of the classroom data. Thus, they focus on the most frequently occurring errors which are phonological errors, lexical errors, and grammatical errors (e.g. Brown, 2016).

Unlike Amy and Tina, in this study, Lily was the only teacher who instructed in English most of the time. It was found that her views on which language to use in class (i.e. English or Chinese) also had an impact on her CF practices in class (see Section 5.6.2.3). For example, she preferred to speak English in class when she co-taught with the native-speaking teacher because she did not want to be considered as a translator. Lily also tried to speak as much English as possible in class, and she never asked the learners to translate an English word, phrase, or sentence into Chinese. Her learners were then not offered a chance to make translation errors. The perspectives of Lily on language use in class also had an effect on the recurrence of the errors. For example, Lily never taught the learners the Chinese translation of the word 'should'. In the interview, Lily claimed that this was one of the reasons this phonological error kept recurring in class.

The above findings have proposed that the perspectives of teachers on what counts as an error and what counts as CF had an influence on the errors the learners made in class and then affected the types of errors Amy, Lily, and Tina corrected in class. The next section will discuss another factor which also influenced the CF practices of the teachers.

7.5 Humorous Language Play

The learners in all of the three classrooms deliberately played on English sounds, e.g. 'ship' in Amy's class, 'do you have a fever, too' in Lily's class, and 'cake' in Tina's class. However, the reactions of these teachers to the intentional language play of their learners were different. In Amy's classroom, after one of Amy's learners used humour and deliberately pronounced 'ship' as 'shit', a good rapport among learners was found because some learners demonstrated solidartiy and formed alignment by playing the sound of 'ship', too. Amy and other learners did not join them but could tolerate this joke. A bond between the Amy and her learners as well as among the learners was found, and a process of socialisation among Amy and the learners emerged (Section 4.6.2). In Lily's classroom, the learners made fun on the rising intonation of this sentence, 'do you have a fever, too'. The reaction of Lily's learners was similar to the reaction of Amy's learners. However, Lily did not intervene or comment on the behaviour of her learners. In Tina's class, when some of the learners intentionally played English sounds for the first time, e.g. pronouncing 'cake' as /keɪ**kə..**/', some learners also expressed solidarity and started to play the same or similar sounds (e.g. '/**gə..**/'). Like Amy's classroom and Lily's classroom, the bond among the learners was also found in Tina's classroom because other learners joined the play on English sounds after an unidentified learner started it. Nonetheless, the language play by learners in Tina's classroom took place in every lesson I observed, so it was found that Tina and other learners did not think it was amusing in the last two lessons I observed. Classroom control by Tina seemed to happen because she pointed out the intentional play on English sounds made by the specific learners in both CO3 and CO4, e.g. 'Hsin-Hong Chen, you pronounced **/kə/** loudly on purpose, didn't you?'. Likewise, the learners showed solidarity with Tina and repeatedly offered peer corrections in CO3 and CO4, e.g. '"/k/" should be voiceless'. Existing

CF studies do not pay attention to deliberate language play on English sounds by learners even though this feature was evident in all the classrooms I observed.

7.6 Teaching Experience and Instructional Focus

One of the factors which affected the CF practices of Amy and Tina was their teaching experience, 18 years and 12 years respectively. On the basis of her teaching experience, Amy found the learners she taught previously were afraid of speaking English because she kept correcting them. Thus, she changed her CF timing and provided delayed CF occasionally. In the interview, when I discussed the phonological errors in this sentence, 'here's your change', with Tina, she specified that her learners would certainly pronounce this sentence poorly. Therefore, due to the teaching experience of Tina, she was quite prepared to correct these phonological errors, e.g. 'here's' and 'change'. When Lily explained her CF practices in class, her reasons did not relate to her teaching experience.

In addition to teaching experience, the instructional focus of the teachers also influenced the CF behaviour of these teachers. In this study, all of these three teachers paid attention to the pronunciation of word level accuracy, e.g. 'ship', 'sore throat', and 'thirty'. Additionally, Amy spent most of the class time on drilling as well as reciting the texts of the coursebook, as well as spending a long period of time on the corrections of a phonics activity. These then resulted in her corrections of the phonological errors in 'the' and 'fly'. Lily focused on the 'Patient and Doctor Practice' dialogue as well as sentence pattern drills, which led to the numerous phonological errors she corrected in class, e.g. 'throat'. Lily also spent a long period of time on the corrections of a vocabulary item of the coursebook which was difficult to pronounce or which the learners had just learnt recently, e.g. 'sore throat'. In Tina's classroom, she paid attention to the practices of the new words, sentence patterns, and phonics, so she also corrected various kinds of phonological errors, e.g. 'thirty'. Tina also spent a long period of time of classroom time on a phonological error in 'hands'. All of these reasons created room for phonological errors in these three classrooms. Phonological errors turned out to be the most common errors these teachers corrected in class. This finding then mismatches the results of Brown's (2016) meta-analysis CF study on observational classrooms. One of the reasons is

that Brown claimed that learners receive most CF on grammatical errors, which is followed by lexical errors and then phonological errors. Another reason for the mismatch between the finding of this study and the results of Brown's (2016) study is that Brown suggested that teachers with more teaching experience pay less attention to phonological errors and more attention to lexical errors.

7.7 Contextual Factors and Pedagogic Knowledge

In this study, contextual factors were also the reasons which affected the CF decisions of Amy and Lily. In the interview, Amy stated that the class fell behind schedule, so she corrected the phonological error in 'ship' directly to save time. Time limitation also influenced the CF practices of Lily, for example in the case of the error in 'should'. This factor, time limitation, also influenced the CF behaviour of the teachers in Yoshida's (2008) study and Mori's (2011) study. Similarly, Nunan (1992a) specified that the pacing of lessons can affect the CF decisions of teachers in class. Additionally, like the Japanese teacher in Mori's (2011) study, Amy's pedagogical knowledge and Tina's pedagogical knowledge also influenced their CF practices. To Amy, these two words 'ship' and 'sheep' were easily mispronounced by her learners, so she spent time teaching as well as correcting the pronunciations of these two words. To Tina, the learners might not know that singular nouns do not need to add an 's', e.g. 'one dollar', so she corrected this grammatical error in 'one dollar"s"'. Lastly, Amy specified that the course schedule had an influence on her CF decisions.

7.8 Individual Learner Differences and the Age of the Participants

In the light of SCT, the findings of this study showed that when Amy, Lily, and Tina corrected oral errors, they considered individual learner differences, such as the ZPD of individual learners, the reaction of learners to CF, the personalities of individual learners, and the self-esteem of individual learners. For example, when Amy corrected the spelling errors made by her learners in a phonics activity, she spent a much longer period of time correcting the error in 'fly' made by an individual learner than on the other error made by another learner. Amy explained her decision-making process, and the main reason was 'because of their personalities' (Section 4.7). Additionally, when Amy corrected this spelling error (fly) made by an individual

learner and when Lily corrected the phonological error in 'should' made by another individual learner, the scaffolding built in these two corrections had been adjusted on the basis of the reactions of these learners to their CF at that given moment. In Tina's classroom, she considered the pronunciation abilities of individual learners because she specified in the interview that 'if they themselves are unable to pronounce it perfectly, I wouldn't ask them to do so'. When Lily and Tina corrected phonological errors, their views were similar to the idea of English as a lingua franca (Wang and Jenkins, 2016) because they did not insist on having perfect pronunciation. Instead, they paid more attention to whether other interlocutors could understand the pronunciations or not. This finding emerged when I discussed with Lily about her correction of the phonological error in 'should'. Her learners made other phonological errors at that given moment, but Lily did not correct these errors. She expressed her view on CF that 'it didn't matter…because the learners all knew their meanings'. This was similar to her other claim in the same interview that 'I deliberately (.) not correct the error because I felt I could understand what the learners had said'. Likewise, Tina also expressed her thoughts on errors and CF in the interview that 'we have our own accent. If the learners don't pronounce a word very accurately, to me, it doesn't matter. I don't ask them to have perfect pronunciation'. Lastly, similar to Johnson's (1992) claim, the behaviour of learners teachers did not expect to happen seemed to affect the CF decisions of Amy and Lily, such as 'where are you from' in Amy's classroom and 'sore throat' in Lily's classroom. A more detailed discussion of the influences the individual learner differences had on the CF decisions of these three teachers will be shown in Section 7.10 and Section 7.11 below.

The above findings indicate that traditional CF models do not pay attention to teachers' views about what counts as an error or indeed teachers' perspectives and decision-making on CF. In addition to this, as reviewed in Section 2.8 and Section 2.9, CF studies usually research into adult classrooms or a mixture of adult classrooms and child classrooms. The research contexts are seldom Asian EFL classrooms, and thus the medium of instruction is rarely Chinese. However, all of the participants of this study were young learners aged between 11 and 12, the research context was in Asian elementary EFL classrooms, and two of the teachers instructed

in Chinese. Therefore, further research is needed to understand CF practices in these types of classrooms.

7.9 Focus-on-Forms Instruction and Data Coding

This section will further discuss problem issues in relation to the instructional focus and data coding. As reviewed in Section 2.4, the theoretical assumption of CF is based on focus-on-form instruction which means that when a comprehension problem occurs in a meaning-focused instruction, teachers temporarily shift the attention of learners to linguistic forms through CF in order to get the meaning across (e.g. Long and Robinson, 1998). This assumption is in line with the title of the seminal CF study done by Lyster and Ranta (1997) – Negotiation of Form in Communicative Classrooms. However, the findings of this study suggest that Amy, Lily, and Tina all focused on the corrections of linguistic forms in spite of the English materials used in these classrooms, the medium of instruction in Lily's classroom, i.e. English, and the teaching experience of Amy and Tina. The reason for this claim was that all of the CF extracts identified by these teachers as errors and CF in the interviews were all focus on the corrections of linguistic forms, and none of these CF extracts were caused by English communication breakdowns. This finding proposes that the existing literature on CF is inadequate to capture what actually happens in the focus-on-forms classrooms I observed. One possible reason for this result related to the design of the class materials which gave less chances for learners to engage in meaning-oriented activities (see Section 4.3 and Section 6.3). Additionally, when these teachers taught the coursebook materials or supplementary materials, they focused on word, sentence, or dialogue drilling. This again closed down the opportunities for meaningful English communication to take place in class. Furthermore, the education system of Taiwan is still test-oriented. These tests are usually done through written exams and involve the examination of vocabulary items, phonics, sentence patterns, and Chinese translations of words and sentences. This feature seems to be one of the reasons that these teachers adopted focus-on-forms instruction.

The above problem of the theoretical assumption of CF also relates to another problematic issue in CF traditions – data coding. One of the CF strategies identified

by Lyster and Ranta (1997) is clarification requests, which can refer to problems in accuracy. Lyster and Ranta (1997) stated that teachers can use phrases such as 'pardon me' to indicate that a reformulation of utterances of learners is required. All of the teachers in this study said utterances like 'again' ('ship' in Amy's classroom, 'he' in Lily's classroom, and 'thirty' in Tina's classroom), 'I cannot hear it' ('fly' in Amy's classroom), or 'one more time' ('yes, I do have a toothache' in Lily's classroom). These utterances, 'again', I cannot hear it', and 'one more time', all referred to problems in accuracy of linguistic forms; the interaction between these teachers and their learners did not happen in communicative classrooms. For this reason, it can be problematic to claim these CF strategies as clarification requests when no meaningful English communication occurred. Consequently, despite the fact that the criterion of selecting interactional episodes for analysis in this study was that the teachers identified the episode as errors and CF, a further problematic issue in data coding still emerged.

The discussion presented so far shows that various kinds of factors had an influence on the types of errors these three teachers corrected in class. Problematic issues in existing CF studies were also identified from the data of this study. It seems that current literature on CF does not account for the complexity of the interaction around teachers' CF which emerged from the classroom data and the interview data of this study.

7.10 When did the Teachers Provide Corrective Feedback?

In this study, one of the research questions was the timing of providing CF, either immediate CF or delayed CF, so a summary of the findings on timing of providing CF is firstly shown in Table 7.2 below.

Table 7.2 Timing of the Provision of Teachers' Corrective Feedback

	Amy's Class	Lily's Class	Tina's Class
Immediate CF	Phonological-Related Errors		
	the (/ði:/) (4.6.1) ship (4.6.2) fly (4.7)	sore throat (5.6.1) should (5.6.2) Yes, I do have a toothache (5.6.3.1)	thirty (6.6.1) Here's your change (6.6.2) hands (6.6.3) they (6.6.4) dollars (6.6.5)

			cake (6.6.6)
	Grammatical Errors		
	Where are you from? (4.8)	he (5.7.2) Yes, he does (5.7.2)	dollar (6.7)
	Translation Errors		
	get up (4.9)		bottle (6.8.1) second (6.8.2)
	Errors Occurring during Text Recitation Activities		
	yep (4.10) oh, thank you (4.10)		
Delayed CF	Phonological-Related Errors		
	the (/ðə/) (4.6.1)	should (5.6.2) Do you have a fever, too (5.6.3.2)	
	Grammatical Errors		
	Where are you from? (4.8)		

At first glance, all three teachers usually provided immediate CF. One of the reasons Lily and Tina corrected errors immediately was close to the view of the audio-lingual method, which encourages teachers to correct an error instantly so that learners do not form bad habits (Li et al., 2016) (Section 5.4, 6.4, and 6.8.2). When an error was the focus of a lesson, Lily corrected it immediately, such as the instances when the grammatical error in 'he' and the grammatical error in 'yes, he does' were corrected during the drilling of these sentence patterns: 'Does she/he have a headache?' and 'Yes, she/he does. No, she/he doesn't.'. These findings generally match the suggestions that teachers offer instant CF in an accuracy-oriented activity (Scrivener, 2005) and provide delayed CF in meaning-oriented classrooms so that the communication flow is not interrupted (Hedge, 2000) or learners do not need to focus on both meaning and forms at the same time (Quinn, 2014 in Li et al., 2016). In this study, all of these three classrooms were form-oriented classrooms, but Amy and Lily still offered delayed CF either a few turns after an error or after an activity had finished. Additionally, Amy and Lily provided both immediate CF and delayed CF on the same kinds of errors, including 'where are you from' in Amy's classroom and 'should' in Lily's classroom. Furthermore, the reasons for these three teachers to offer immediate CF were not as straightforward as the above literature has suggested.

7.10.1 Delayed Corrective Feedback – The Flow of the Classroom Activities

In this study, both Amy and Lily offered delayed CF after a classroom activity finished, and one of their reasons was not to interrupt the flow of these activities. These delayed corrections happened after the learners of Amy engaged in a text drilling activity ('the') and a text recitation activity ('where are you from') and after the learners of Lily engaged in role-play activities which did not involve in meaningful communication ('should' and 'do you have a fever, too'). These findings reveal that the teachers still offered delayed CF on errors which occurred in mechanical drilling activities of focus-on-forms instruction.

7.10.2 Either Delayed Corrective Feedback or Immediate Corrective Feedback – Individual Learner Differences and Reactions of Learners at a Given Moment

Although Tina did not specify this in the interviews, the factor, individual learner differences, was another reason which affected the timing of providing CF of Amy and Lily. When one of the learners made the grammatical error in 'where are you from' in a text recitation activity, Amy said she postponed her CF to a later time because 'according to L11's personality, he would have told me the correct answer if he'd known it. Thus, I decided to let other learners recite the texts first'. In Lily's classroom, she preferred to postpone CF until role-play activities finished; however, it was found that she still offered immediate corrections during these activities. One of the reasons which influenced Lily's CF decisions was that 'it depended on the learners. Some learners didn't mind being corrected directly by me, but some learners' face fell instantly'. Another reason which affected her decision-making on CF was the reaction of the learners at that given moment – A learner was unable to pronounce 'should' accurately and sought help from her. Then, Lily, who originally decided to exclude herself from the role-play activity between the learners, decided to get involved in the classroom interaction and offer instant CF instead (Section 5.6.2).

7.10.3 Immediate Corrective Feedback – Degree of an Error from the Viewpoint of the Teachers

One of the reasons Amy and Tina provided immediate CF related to the degree of an error from their viewpoints. In Amy's classroom, when one of her learners said

'where's your from' in a text recitation activity, Amy corrected this grammatical error immediately (see Example 7.1 below).

Example 7.1 – Extract 4.5a (CO3)

300 L11 Where's your from (↓) ((in a fast pace))
301 Amy ((opening the mouth with a surprising face for around 1 second))
Where's your from?
.
.
305 Amy *...Ok, I will write down this sentence. Number 11, please continue to recite the texts.*

In the interview, Amy explained her CF decisions at this moment. Firstly, 'L11 said this sentence incorrectly, so I gave him a chance. He still hadn't corrected it, so I wrote it down', and secondly, she provided written prompts on the blackboard 'when there is a serious error and I want to leave an impression on them' (see Section 4.8). From the viewpoint of Amy, this grammatical error, 'where's your from', was serious, so she provided both verbal immediate CF and nonverbal immediate CF. Amy's CF decisions also fulfilled her claim in the 1st interview that she offered instant CF when 'those errors need to be clarified immediately'. Likewise, When Tina taught the sentence patterns of the coursebook, she provided instant CF in response to a phonological error of her learners (see Example 7.2 below).

Example 7.2 – Extract 6.9 (CO2)

129 Tina *...Let's read them aloud once.*

130 Ls How much is a piece of cake?
L3 /keɪ**kə..**/

131 Tina good, cake

132 Ls cake
L3 /keɪ**kə**/

133 Tina cake

134 Ls cake
L3 /keɪ**kə**/

135 Tina '/k/' *is voiceless, so pronounce* 'cake'.
136 L /keɪ**kə**/
137 Tina *that* '/k/' *(.) too (?)* '/k/'.

138 L /k/, /kə/
139 L /kə/
140 Tina *ok, next, the answer*

In the above interaction, Tina always offered immediate CF when there was an error, and she explained her CF decisions at this moment: 'when it's a very obvious error, you must correct it'. These findings suggest that Amy and Tina corrected errors instantly not only because they focused on linguistic forms but also because of the seriousness or obviousness of an error from their viewpoints.

From discussion so far, the reason for offering immediate CF or delayed CF was not just the instructional focus, either on form or on meaning. Perspectives of teachers on errors and CF and individual learner differences all played a role on the decision-making process of teachers around CF. The following sections will move on to the central focus of my study – how Amy, Lily, and Tina provided CF in class.

7.11 How did the Teachers Provide Corrective Feedback?

Existing CF studies adopt a deductive, quantitative approach and pay attention to the frequency and effectiveness of CF. As discussed in Chapter 2, their approach to data analysis fails to consider teachers' perspectives on what counts as an error and what counts as CF. The earlier studies on teachers' perspectives on CF were primarily conducted through a questionnaire or survey (Section 2.12.1). The studies since 2005 have started to investigate teachers' perspectives or decision-making on CF through multiple data-collection methods (Sections 2.12.2-2.12.3). However, the studies mentioned above either focused on teachers' practices in class or teachers' perspectives on CF. Lee's (2013), Mori's (2011) study, and Junqueira and Kim's (2013) study began to have a cross-analysis of teachers' practices and teachers' perspectives on CF. However, they either conducted a quantitative analysis of the data or paid more attention to teachers' perspectives on CF (Sections 2.12.2-2.12.3). Thus, their findings were insufficient to provide a full picture of the classroom interaction around CF. Additionally, none of these studies researched into CF in elementary EFL classrooms in Asia (Section 1.2 and Section 2.8). Consequently, the existing CF literature is unable to capture what actually happens in the classrooms I observed which reveals complex sequences around CF and involves clusters of CF

strategies and teachers' co-constructed interaction with learners (e.g. scaffolding building). The discussion below will start with Amy's, Lily's, and Tina's verbal CF strategies.

7.11.1 Verbal Corrective Feedback Strategies

The findings of this study demonstrate that Amy, Lily, and Tina all used verbal CF strategies to correct their learners' oral English errors. Nonetheless, their reasons for which kind of CF strategy to use at a given moment were sometimes different from what the existing CF literature has suggested. For example, existing CF studies demonstrate that teachers prefer implicit CF strategies like recasts because of time restrictions and learners' English proficiency, as well as considering learners' self-esteem and avoiding interrupting the flow of communication (Junqueira and Kim, 2013; Lee, 2013; Yoshida, 2008). In my findings, when Amy corrected a phonological error in 'the' (Section 4.61), she combined a recast with a stress and elongated sound (/ði:../). The reason was that she wanted to correct the error directly and emphasise as well as impress the correct pronunciation upon the learners. Likewise, when Amy corrected a spelling error in 'fly', she again combined a recast with an elongated sound, offered a shorter form of recasts (/aɪ/), or combined recasts with elicitation. Thus, Amy's use of recasts did not function as unobtrusive CF as Long's (1996) interaction hypothesis suggested (see Section 2.4). Instead, Amy's intention was to enable the learners to notice her recasts (Sheen, 2004). In Lily's classroom, she used recasts to correct a phonological error in 'should'. She illustrated that treating errors directly and immediately through recasts was helpful for learners to correct errors (Section 5.6.2.2). Lily's claim is in line with the results of the literature that recasts help with L2 acquisition (e.g. Han, 2002); however, to an extent, her claim also mismatches the literature because recasts are often regarded as a less effective CF strategy (e.g. Ammar and Spada, 2006). Like Amy, Lily also combined recasts with elicitation when she corrected the phonological error in 'should'. Similarly, in Tina's classroom, she used the same combination, elicitation plus a recast, after a learner did not know how to pronounce 'change'. Her reason for this CF behaviour was that 'change' was a repeated phonological error, so she wanted to draw the attention of the whole class to this error and ask the learners to repeat the correct pronunciation after her (Section 6.6.2). The findings suggest that teachers may use the same CF strategy in different ways (e.g. with an elongated

sound) as well as for different reasons.

The existing CF literature also claims that teachers in form-focused instruction offer more prompts than teachers in meaning-focused instruction (Brown, 2016). The three teachers of this study all adopted form-focused instruction, but the findings do not agree with Brown's claim. Amy preferred output-prompting CF because she liked to give the learners time and space to re-think the correct answer. Amy's reason did not result from her form-oriented instruction. Additionally, Amy's preferred CF, prompts, is also against the results of CF studies which state that teachers use more recasts than prompts in class (e.g. Lyster and Ranta, 1997). In Mori's (2011) study, the Japanese teacher also guided and prompted learners when he offered CF. However, his reason was to encourage learners to speak English, as well as enabling them to use linguistic forms correctly. Thus, this reason was also different from Amy's CF which primarily fulfilled a pedagogical purpose – enabling learners to re-think the correct linguistic utterance. In Lily's classroom, she seemed to prefer both prompts (i.e. elicitation) and recasts when she corrected errors such as in the cases of 'should' and 'sore throat'. In Tina's classroom, her CF strategies often opposed Brown's (2016) claim because she repeatedly offered explicit correction to correct linguistic forms, e.g. 'dollar' and 'bottle' due to her viewpoint that translation errors needed to be corrected immediately. Thus, these findings again reveal that teachers' personal views on error and CF often impact their decision-making around CF.

Seedhouse (1997) and Ellis (2009) claimed that positive feedback may precede teachers' CF. This was found in all of the classrooms of this study, i.e. 'fly' (4.7), 'yes, I do have a toothache' (5.6.3), 'he' (5.7.2), 'thirty' (6.6.1), 'hands' (6.6.3), 'they' (6.6.4), 'dollars' (6.6.5), and 'cake' (6.6.6). Tina's strategy here was different from Amy's strategy and Lily's strategy because she often offered a combination of praise and recasts, i.e. 'good, are they' (6.6.4), 'good, dollars' (6.6.5), and 'good, cake' (6.6.6). Tina explained her behaviour that sometimes she said 'good' to praise the learners who pronounced a word correctly and offered recasts for the learners who made an error. The findings of this study also show that exaggerative sounds and stress were used differently by the teachers. Tina only used elongated sounds to correct two phonological errors, 'change' and 'hands', but Tina's learners stated that Tina stressed her pronunciation or her pronunciation was clearer when she corrected

their errors. When Lily corrected the grammatical error in ‘yes, he does’, she firstly combined a rising tone with elicitation, after which she combined a rising tone with the repetition of the error. When I talked about Lily’s CF strategies with her learners, they mentioned that Lily sometimes smiled consecutively. This was found in my data that Lily used laughter to indicate an error when she corrected the intonation error in ‘yes, I do have a toothache’ and the grammatical error in ‘she’. Amy also used laughter to indicate an error when she corrected the phonological error in ‘ship’ and the spelling error in ‘fly’. Besides, Amy used exaggerative sounds such as rising tones, elongated sounds, doubtful sounds, or surprising sounds to correct errors, i.e. a phonological error in ‘fly’, a grammatical error in ‘where are you from’, and a translation error in ‘get up’. Amy also used stress when she provided CF strategies like explicit correction, elicitation, and repetition of the errors, i.e. ‘the’ (4.61), ‘ship’ (4.62), ‘fly’ (4.7), ‘where are you from’ (4.8), and ‘get up’ (4.9). Amy was also the only teacher who used a dialect, Taiwanese, to correct a spelling error in ‘fly’. Lastly, Amy and Tina sometimes invited the whole class to correct an individual learner’s error, i.e. ‘fly’ (4.7), ‘where are you from’ (4.8), and ‘here’s your change’ (6.6.2).

The above findings signify that the teachers often adopted more than one verbal CF strategy to treat an error. For example, Amy combined a verbal CF move with a stress in one teacher turn, i.e. ‘the’ (4.61). Amy, Lily, and Tina provided multiple verbal CF moves either in one teacher turn or in one CF extract, e.g. ‘fly’ (4.7), ‘where are you from’ (4.8), ‘should’ (5.6.2), ‘yes, he does’ (5.7.2), ‘thirty’ (6.6.1), and ‘hands’ (6.6.3). In fact, the findings presented in Chapters 4-6 reveal an even more complex classroom interaction than this because Amy, Lily, and Tina also used nonverbal strategies or course materials like the coursebook, CD, or written prompts to correct errors.

7.11.2 Nonverbal Corrective Feedback Strategies

Amy, Lily, and Tina also adopted nonverbal CF strategies to correct oral English errors. This included the use of facial expressions, fingers, hands, eyes, head, laughter, body movement, and pause (Davies, 2006; Ellis, 2009; Faraco and Kida, 2008; Matsumoto and Dobs, 2016; Wang and Loewen, 2016). Some of these nonverbal strategies were also specified by their learners in the interviews. For example, Amy’s learners mentioned that Amy wrote down erroneous utterances on

the blackboard in order to correct their errors. Lily's learners said that Lily underlined syllables and smiled weirdly or consecutively when she corrected their errors. Tina's learners claimed that Tina used gazes, underlined words, and put a cross, 'X', on an erroneous word. Whilst Amy, Lily, and Tina all adopted nonverbal CF, they often used these strategies in different ways.

7.11.2.1 Facial Expression

The use of facial expression was specified by Bell (2005) who studied teachers' beliefs about effective teaching and learning. This nonverbal behaviour was also spotted in my data. For example, when Amy corrected the phonological error in 'ship', the spelling error in 'fly', and the translation error in 'get up', her smiley face was like a sign indicating there was an error. Amy had a doubted expression on her face when she heard the errors in 'ship' and 'fly'. This nonverbal behaviour, doubting, was also specified by Amy when she explained how she corrected the phonological error in 'fly' and the translation error in 'get up'. Amy also had a surprised look on her face when she corrected the errors in 'fly' and 'get up', as well as opening her mouth to imply there was a spelling error in 'fly'. When Amy illustrated her CF on the error, 'get up', there seemed to be a correlation among her verbal doubting, her surprised look, and her understanding of individual learners' English proficiency. The reason was that Amy said she used doubting to correct the error in 'get up' because she felt surprised that a specific learner made this translation error. Likewise, Amy also mentioned the learner's English abilities when she explained her CF on the spelling error, 'fly'. These findings suggest that the actual classroom interaction around CF in this study was more complex than what was usually shown in the classroom data of other CF studies. In Lily's class, she used a smiley face to indicate there were grammatical errors in 'she', 'he', and 'yes, he does'. Tina did not have any noticeable facial expression when she provided CF. However, when she corrected a phonological error in 'thirty', she had her tongue stuck and occasionally sustained this behaviour when she elongated the sound, '/θɜ:/'.

7.11.2.2 Index Fingers

Unlike the use of facial expression, Amy only used an index finger to point at one side of the classroom and point at a specific learner when her learners deliberately pronounced 'ship' as 'shit'. On the other hand, Lily and Tina used index fingers in a

variety of ways. When Lily corrected the phonological errors ('should', 'sore throat', and 'yes, I do have a toothache') and the grammatical error ('yes, he does'), she drew the attention of the learners to her CF by using her finger to point at the PowerPoint texts ('should', 'yes, I do have a toothache', and 'yes, he does'), point at a specific learner ('yes, he does'), or point at her written letters and words on the blackboard ('sore throat'). When Tina corrected the phonological errors ('thirty', 'change', and 'hands'), the grammatical error ('dollar'), the translation error ('bottle'), she used her finger to point at a number or a word she wrote on the blackboard ('thirty' and 'hands'), point at her mouth ('thirty'), circle a word on a poster ('change'), point at the words on a poster ('change'), and use a finger to gesture a number ('dollar' and 'bottle'). Tina's use of finger could either assist in her verbal CF or function as a nonverbal CF move (e.g. pointing at her mouth and gesturing number '1'). From the above discussion, Amy preferred to use facial expression to indicate there was an error or assist in verbal CF, but Tina usually used her finger to offer nonverbal CF or assist in her verbal CF.

7.11.2.3 Hands

Amy, Lily, and Tina sometimes used hand gestures when they corrected the errors. Amy made a hand gesture, imitating an open mouth, when she corrected the phonological error in 'ship'. She also put her hand close to her ear to assist in her verbal CF on the spelling error, 'fly'. Lily used both of her hands to touch a learner's throat when she corrected the phonological error in 'throat'. She also had her hand pointing towards a male learner when she corrected the grammatical error in 'he'. In Tina's class, she gestured a 'stop' sign with her palm when she corrected the grammatical error in 'dollar'. Thus, from the discussion so far, we could notice that Amy, Lily, and Tina used the same type of nonverbal behaviour in very different ways and to treat different kinds of errors. The existing literature also suggests that teachers used body language to indicate an error (Bell, 2005) or enable their CF to become more efficient (Lasagabaster and Sierra, 2005).

7.11.2.4 Eyes

When I discussed the teachers' CF strategies with the learners, Lily's learners talked about Lily's smile, and Tina's learners pointed out Tina's gazes. Thus, to the learners, the use of eyes could also indicate that there was an error. When Amy's learner

played the sound of ‘ship’, except for the use of the finger and multiple verbal feedback, Amy concurrently looked at one side of the classroom where the sound of ‘shit’ was heard or looked at a specific learner who said ‘shit’ (Section 4.62). When Amy corrected the spelling error in ‘fly’ and the translation error in ‘get up’, she also gazed at the specific learners who made these errors. When Amy corrected the grammatical error in ‘where are you from’, alongside her verbal CF, she stared at the erroneous sentence she wrote on the blackboard and sustained her behaviour until her learner responded to her CF. Like Amy, when Lily corrected the grammatical error in ‘yes, he does’, she also looked at the specific learner who made this error. Besides, when Lily corrected the phonological error in ‘throat’, she not only pointed her finger at her written letters on the blackboard but also looked at these letters in order to draw the attention of the whole class to her written prompts. Likewise, when Tina offered verbal CF, she also looked at the specific learner who made the grammatical error in ‘dollar’ and looked at the whole class when multiple learners made the translation error in ‘bottle’. Consequently, when Amy, Lily, and Tina corrected errors, a combination of verbal behaviour and nonverbal behaviour was evidenced in my data (see also Section 7.11.4 below).

7.11.2.5 Head, Body Movement, and Pause

When Amy corrected the phonological error in ‘ship’, together with her verbal CF, she moved her head when she had a doubtful expression on her face. Likewise, when Tina offered verbal CF on the grammatical error in ‘dollar’, she turned her head in order to look at the learner who made this error. When Lily corrected the error in ‘yes, he does’, except for the use of eyes and finger, Lily also moved her body to approach the learner who made the errors in order to assist her verbal CF. Besides, when Lily corrected the phonological error in ‘throat’, she needed to move her body and approach a learner in order to assist in her another nonverbal behaviour, touching that learner’s throat. Likewise, when Amy corrected the spelling error in ‘fly’, she had a noticeable body movement in order to look at her coursebook. Amy’s nonverbal behaviour was used to assist her verbal CF at that given moment. Lastly, it was also found that Amy and Tina used a noticeable pause to assist their CF. Amy and Tina both paused after an error occurred (‘ship’ and ‘/kə/’). Tina also paused when she was offering verbal CF (‘dollar’). Amy had a noticeable pause when she

provided multiple verbal CF moves and multiple nonverbal CF moves (‘fly’) and also before she made a comment on a specific learner’s error (‘get up’).

Consequently, Amy, Lily, and Tina often adopted nonverbal behaviour to offer corrections or assist in their verbal CF moves. Several of these strategies also correlated with each other, joining together to treat the learners’ errors. The combinations of nonverbal behaviour and verbal behaviour observed in these classrooms also demonstrate that the actual classroom interaction I observed was more complex than the data shown in existing CF studies. The next section will discuss the teachers’ use of course materials in class, which lead to an even more complicated classroom interaction.

7.11.3 Course Materials

When Amy, Lily, and Tina corrected oral errors in class, they were teaching the coursebook, the supplementary materials (i.e. PowerPoint texts), or the coursebook posters, CD, or flashcards. It was found that sometimes these materials as well as the teachers’ written letters, words, or sentences on the blackboard were served as a CF technique or were used to assist in verbal CF moves or nonverbal CF moves (see Table 7.3 below).

Table 7.3 Course Materials as Corrective Feedback Techniques

	Amy’s Class	Lily’s Class	Tina’s Class
Coursebook Texts	O		O
Written Prompts	O	O	O
PowerPoint Texts		O	
Coursebook Posters			O
Coursebook CD			O
Coursebook Flashcards			O

In SCT terms, the use of the materials as CF techniques means the error treatment takes the form of object-regulation (Lantolf et al., 2015). Table 7.3 shows that all of the teachers used object-regulation when they corrected errors. For example, when Amy corrected the grammatical error in ‘where are you from’, she wrote down the erroneous sentence on the blackboard, ‘where’s your from’. At the end of her error treatment process, she also wrote down the correct sentence, ‘where are you from’. The erroneous sentence was served as a written repetition of the learner’s

grammatical error, and the correct sentence was like a written recast. In Lily's class, she used written prompts to correct the phonological error in 'throat'. She wrote down the English letters of 'throat' step by step, i.e. letters 't' and 'h' firstly, followed by letter 'r', letters 'o' and 'a', and letter 't'. Concurrently, she offered verbal behaviour, nonverbal behaviour, and asked the learners the pronunciations of these letters. Thus, these written letters were like nonverbal clues, assisting the learners in pronouncing 'throat' correctly. Here, we can see a complex process of treating one single error. Nonetheless, the same phonological error in 'throat' still happened again in the same lesson as well as in another two lessons I observed. When existing CF studies present their findings, they focus on the learner error, teachers' corrections of this error, and the learners' response to teachers' CF. Their data usually exclude nonverbal behaviour and the use of materials as a CF strategy. When they discuss the frequency and effectiveness of CF, they do not pay attention to whether an error recurred in the same lessons or in different lessons. These findings suggest that the traditional CF models fail to capture the classroom interaction around CF in all kinds of settings.

My data also show that Amy and Tina adopted more than one kind of object-regulation when they corrected the same error. For example, Amy used the coursebook texts and written prompts on the blackboard when she corrected the spelling error in 'fly'. In this CF episode, Amy and the learner who made this spelling error sometimes looked at their own coursebook because this error resulted from a phonics activity of the coursebook. In this activity, the learners needed to choose the correct spelling from two options. Thus, these two options in the coursebook, containing a correct spelling and an incorrect spelling, were served as nonverbal elicitation. Amy's error treatment firstly combined this nonverbal elicitation in the coursebook with her verbal CF and nonverbal behaviour. However, the learner still made an error, so Amy adopted another kind of object-regulation through her written prompts on the blackboard. Likewise, Tina used three types of object-regulation to correct a phonological error, 'hands', i.e. written prompts on the blackboard, the coursebook CD, and the coursebook flashcards. Similar to the phonological error in 'throat', the phonological error in 'hands' also recurred in the same lesson (Section 6.6.3). When this error firstly happened, Tina's CF involved the combination of verbal behaviour, nonverbal behaviour, and the flashcard. The reason

was that the flashcard contains the English word, 'hands' and a picture of 'hands', so this visual aid was like a nonverbal clue prompting the learners to self-correct the error. When this phonological error recurred again in the same lesson, Tina used a more complicated strategy to correct this error, combining verbal CF, written prompts on the blackboard, nonverbal behaviour through pointing her finger at the written prompts, and the coursebook CD. In this CF episode, when the coursebook CD read aloud 'hands', it was served as a recast. Following this series of CF strategies happening in multiple teacher turns, Tina's learners successfully produced the correct pronunciation. The discussion presented so far reveals that verbal CF strategies, nonverbal behaviour, and the class materials often correlated with each other. This correlation then formed a cluster of CF strategies when Amy, Lily, and Tina corrected oral errors in class (see below).

7.11.4 Clusters of Corrective Feedback Strategies

One of my critiques of existing CF studies is that they are inadequate to capture what actually happened in the classrooms I observed. In order to demonstrate the complex classroom interaction around CF in my data, I will firstly classify Amy's, Lily's, and Tina's verbal CF and nonverbal CF into three categories:

(1) Only one CF move in one extract;
(2) Multiple CF moves only in one teacher turn of one extract;
(3) Multiple CF moves in multiple teacher turns of one extract.

Although I coded all the CF moves separately, the first category relates to the traditional CF studies which examine the effects of single CF strategies have on learners' performances and the effectiveness of these individual CF strategies. The 2nd category represents multiple CF moves in one teacher turn. The 3rd category shows the complex CF process that one extract could involve multiple CF moves in multiple teacher turns. In SCT terms, scaffolding usually happened in the 3rd category, but it could also happen in the 2nd category if these multiple CF moves did not occur simultaneously. In Table 7.4 below, only Amy's, Lily's, and Tina's verbal CF moves and nonverbal CF moves have been categorised, but I put their use of class materials in brackets when these materials were served as a CF technique at that given moment.

Table 7.4 Single CF Moves vs. Clusters of CF Moves

	Amy's Class	Lily's Class	Tina's Class
Only One CF Move in One Extract	the (/ðə/) (4.6.1) the (/ði:/) (4.6.1)	should (5.6.2) (PowerPoint texts)	they (6.6.4) dollars (6.6.5) (coursebook texts) second (6.8.2) (coursebook texts)
Multiple CF Moves Only in One Teacher Turn of One Extract	yep (4.10)	should (5.6.2) (PowerPoint texts) Yes, I do have a toothache (5.6.3.1) (PowerPoint texts) Do you have a fever, too (5.6.3.2) (written prompts) he (5.7.2)	hands (6.6.3) (coursebook flashcard) bottle (6.8.1) (coursebook texts)
Multiple CF Moves in Multiple Teacher Turns of One Extract	ship (4.62) (written prompts) fly (4.7) (coursebook texts) (written prompts) Where are you from (4.8) (written prompts) get up (4.9) Oh, thank you (4.10)	sore throat (5.6.1) (coursebook texts) (written prompts) should (5.6.2) (PowerPoint texts) Yes, he does (5.7.2)	thirty (6.6.1) (written prompts) Here's your change (6.6.2) (coursebook texts) (coursebook poster) hands (6.6.3) (coursebook CD) (written prompts) cake (6.6.6) (coursebook poster) dollar (6.7.1) (coursebook poster)

Table 7.4 reveals that when these teachers corrected an error, it was common for them to offer multiple CF moves in one teacher turn (Lily) or provide CF in multiple teacher turns (Amy, Lily, and Tina). On the other hand, there were still examples of only providing one CF move when they corrected errors, but the phonological error, 'should', was a reoccurred error throughout CO1-CO3. Lily explained that when the first learner made this phonological error, to her, this might just be that learner's own

pronunciation problem. This was probably a reason that Lily only offered one CF move at that given moment. Lily stated that when the same error recurred as well as made by more than one learner, she would correct the error again. Lily's personal perspective on error and CF matches what happened in class. When this phonological error occurred again, Lily offered CF in multiple teacher turns and used the PowerPoint texts to assist in her CF (Extract 5.7.2 of Section 5.6.2). I will explain Lily's decisions on CF as well as her CF practices in order to justify my claim that the traditional CF models fail to account for what was going on in the classrooms I observed.

In this CF episode (Extract 5.7.2), Lily offered delayed CF on the error in 'should' made by an individual learner in a role-play activity. Lily's provision of delayed CF resulted from her perspective on CF – Not to interrupt the flow of a role-play activity. After this activity finished, Lily started her CF with a verbal elicitation. Concurrently, she offered nonverbal behaviour, pointing her finger at the word 'you' on the PowerPoint texts, in order to draw this learner's attention to her verbal CF (see Example 7.3 below).

Example 7.3 – Extract 5.7.2 (CO4)
189 Lily This one ((pointing at 'you' on the PowerPoint slide))

Thus, the above single CF turn already involved verbal CF and nonverbal behaviour, as well as two forms of regulation (other-regulation by Lily and object-regulation by PowerPoint texts). After this CF turn, the same learner still made an error, so Lily started to build scaffolding and offered CF in the 2nd teacher turn through the same kind of strategies, a verbal CF with the assistance of nonverbal behaviour and the PowerPoint texts (see Example 7.4 below)

Example 7.4 – Extract 5.7.2 (CO4)
191 Lily Ok, what's this? ((pointing at 'you' on the PowerPoint slide))

Unfortunately, the error was not resolved, so the co-constructed interaction between Lily and this learner continued. Based on this female learner's preceding performance, Lily seemed to understand her individual ZPD – Unable to pronounce

‘/ʊ/’ accurately. Thus, Lily’s next CF move merely offered a shorter form of recasts, ‘/ʊ/’, after which no error was observed in this extract (see Example 7.5 below).

Example 7.5 – Extract 5.7.2 (CO4)

193	Lily	/ʊ/	
194	L(A)	/ʊ/, /ʃʊ/	
195	Lily	/ʃʊ/	/ʃʊ/
196	L(A)		/ʃʊ/
197	Lily	Ok, should	
198	L(A)	should	

However, what actually happened in the classroom was more complex than this because the same error happened again right after this CF extract. Lily’s explanation in the interviews suggested that the major reason for this phonological error to keep happening throughout CO1-CO3 related to Lily’s views on error and CF. For example, Lily was reluctant to speak Chinese in class, so she claimed that one reason for this repeated error was that the learners did not know its Chinese meaning. Lily’s another reason was that the pronunciation of ‘should’ does not follow phonics rules. Additionally, to Lily, the learners did not need to use this word, ‘should’, in elementary school, so she decided not to correct it in a salient way. To Lily, the reformulation of the incorrect utterance, ‘/ʊ/’, was already a very explicit CF strategy. In addition to these personal beliefs, Lily did not ask the learners to have perfect pronunciation. Thus, Lily did not correct the pronunciation of the learners when she felt its sound was close to the standard one (Section 5.6.2.2). Lily’s claim also related to her perspective on what counts as an error.

Multiple CF moves in multiple teacher turns in one single CF extract with the assistance of nonverbal behaviour and object-regulation plus the explanations of the classroom interaction from teachers’ viewpoint were also found in Lily’s CF episode of ‘sore throat’ as well as in Amy’s class and Tina’s class, e.g. ‘ship’, ‘fly’, and ‘where are you from’ in Amy’s class; ‘thirty’, ‘here’s your change’, ‘one dollar’, and ‘hands’ in Tina’s class. I will give another example of Tina’s correction of the grammatical error in ‘one dollar’ below. This example also relates to Tina’s decision-making around CF.

In the 2nd lesson I observed, an individual learner, L4, made a grammatical error and said 'it's one dollars'. Even though this error was only made by one single learner, Tina still decided to correct it. Her reason was that '*learners might not know that when there's only "*one*", a "*dollar*" doesn't need to add an "*s*"* (INT3)'. Thus, this was the reason for Tina to offer immediate CF at that given moment (see Example 7.6 below).

Example 7.6 – Extract 6.10 (CO2)

145	L4	**It's one dollars.**
146	Tina	((turning her head to look at L4)) *No 's'*. ((looking at L4 plus gesturing a 'stop' sign with a palm))
		It's one (.) dollar ((while nodding her head, her finger pointing out number '*1*'))
147	Ls	one..dollar
148	Tina	((Gesturing a 'stop' sign with her palm)) *Right.*

Multiple verbal CF moves and multiple nonverbal CF moves took place in line 146. Tina's first move was nonverbal, turning her head to gaze at L4 who made the error. This gaze was like a hint, indicating that L4 had made an error. Besides, she simultaneously provided an explicit verbal correction (No 's') as well as a nonverbal gesture (i.e. a 'stop' sign with a palm). Then, the co-construction of the interaction between Tina and her learners emerged because they worked together to produce a successful utterance, 'one..dollar'. During this co-construction, Tina again offered clusters of CF strategies. She strategically paused before the error (It's one (.)), after which she offered an instant recast (dollar). Meanwhile, Tina used her finger to point out Number 1, which was like a hint, reminding the learners of the grammatical rule. Besides, Tina's gesture of a 'stop' sign with her palm in line 148 also assisted with her CF strategies in line 146, both of which prevented the learners from adding an 's' on 'one dollar'. These findings imply that existing CF studies fail to explain the complex classroom interaction around CF in my study. Thus, there is a need to conduct an inductive microanalysis of the classroom data, interpret the data in terms of SLA and SCT, and consider teachers' perspectives on what counts as an error and CF at a given moment.

The findings of this study also suggest that the co-constructed interaction between the teachers and their learners contained the teachers' examinations of their learners' ZPDs and scaffolding building. For example, when Lily corrected the error in 'sore throat', she did not know the learners' ZPD in the beginning because she felt surprised when the learners made this phonological error. Thus, at the beginning of this CF episode, Lily repeated her original question for a few times. After this, the co-constructed interaction emerged because Lily adopted multiple CF strategies in order to prompt the learners to produce the correct pronunciation of 'sore throat'. The classroom data demonstrate that the learners contributed to the interaction and seemed able to pronounce 'sore', but they still made an error in 'throat'. This finding was also specified by Amy; thus, after she confirmed her learners' group ZPD – unable to pronounce 'throat' accurately – her co-constructed interaction with the learners continued, but her CF focus and scaffolding shifted from 'sore throat' to 'throat'. Similarly, when Amy talked about her CF on the spelling error in 'fly', she understood the personality of the learner who made this error, but she was uncertain about his spelling abilities, i.e. whether he knew the correct answer or not. Thus, a series of scaffolding was observed in order for Amy to know this learner's individual ZPD on spelling abilities. In the latter part of this CF episode, this learner was still unable to choose the correct answer from two options, but most of the learners seemed to know the right spelling. Amy's decision was to provide further CF through combining the written prompts on the blackboard with verbal elicitation. Her reason considered this individual learner's ZPD – This learner did not answer it correctly, so Amy wanted him to compare the phonetic sounds of these two letters (Section 4.7). What happened in Lily's CF on 'sore throat' and Amy's CF on 'fly' matches the notion of dynamic assessment, which involves teachers' assessment of learners' abilities as well as teachers' assistance in helping learners to stretch beyond their current proficiency level (Section 2.13.4).

Tina also built scaffolding when she provided CF on the phonological error in 'hands' (Section 6.6.3). Tina's error treatment process took the form of other-regulation by herself in the beginning. When the error recurred in the same lesson, a series of co-constructed interaction between Tina and her learners as well as among the coursebook CD, Tina, and her learners were spotted in my data. Overall, the CF strategies on 'should', 'sore throat', 'fly', and 'hands' all demonstrated a complex

clusters of CF strategies and involved a series of co-constructed interaction between the teachers and the learners. Their CF strategies often moved from more implicit or simpler strategies to more focused, complicated, or explicit strategies. For example, Lily moved from the CF of the whole word 'should' to dividing it into syllables. Lily started the correction from the phrase 'sore throat' to the word 'throat'. After this, her CF focus shifted from the word 'throat' to dividing it into syllables. Amy started from repeating her question, 'fly', or asking questions to elicit the correct spelling of 'fly' to combining written prompts on the blackboard with verbal CF, i.e. asking the phonetic sound of an English letter. Tina's CF shifted from providing the correct utterance in one teacher turn to repeatedly asking the learners to listen to the CD's standard pronunciation plus a series of scaffolding. Another point to consider is that the above errors often recurred in the same CF extract, in the same lesson, or in different lessons I observed. The above discussion of the shifts of teachers' CF strategies indicates that the recurrence of an error also had an influence on the teachers' CF decisions. The corresponding findings were found in Lily's class and in Tina's class when they accounted for their CF practices, i.e. 'should' in Lily's class and 'here's your change' in Tina's class (Section 5.6.2 and 6.6.2). Additionally, it was found that the recurrence of the errors sometimes related to the teachers' non-standard pronunciations, e.g. 'stomachache' in Lily's class and 'five' in Tina's class (Section 5.6.2.2 and 6.6.1).

Lastly, my findings also reveal that not only did scaffolding emerge from the classroom data, it was also specified by Amy when she accounted for her CF practices on the error, 'where are you from' (Section 4.8). It is also interesting that scaffolding building was also pointed out by one of Tina's learners. This learner said that one of Tina's correction strategies was to '*looked at me; then, she said the correct English and asked the whole class to read it again*' (Section 6.7.1). This implies that scaffolding was commonly used by the teachers so the explanations of CF practices by the teachers themselves or by their learners inevitably invovled scaffolding building. The correspoinding classroom data were also summarised in Table 7.4 above. Consequently, the discussion presented so far clearly demonstrates that the actual interaction around CF in the classrooms I observed was much more complicated than what was usually shown in the classroom data of existing CF studies.

7.12 Contributions of the Current Study

This study investigated the interaction around CF on oral errors in three elementary EFL classrooms in Taiwan through classroom observations, teacher interviews, and learner interviews. The first contribution of this study relates to data coding. The traditional analytic model of CF studies do not consider teachers' perspectives on what counts as an error and what counts as CF, and nor does this analytic model pay attention to teachers' decision-making process around CF. The findings of this study suggest that teachers' perspectives on error and CF played a role on their CF practices in class. Thus, in this study, the criterion for selecting interactional CF episodes for analysis was that the teachers identified the episode as one of CF. The second contribution relates to the approach to data analysis. Traditional CF models carry out a deductive, quantitative analysis of the classroom data. Nonetheless, this approach is inadequate to capture what actually happens in the classrooms I observed, so I decided to adopt an inductive, microanalysis of the qualitative data. Consequently, this study lent a different perspective to CF through a more nuanced and integrated approach. The third contribution of this study relates to error types the teachers corrected in class. Teachers' CF on translation errors was evidenced in two of the classrooms I observed and perhaps in other similar classrooms where teachers and learners share the same first language and where teachers instruct in the first language. Nonetheless, existing CF studies do not pay attention to this type of errors. Additionally, due to the different perspectives of these teachers, the corrections of intonation errors as well as errors which occurred during text recitation activities also emerged.

The fourth contribution of this study relates to the classroom interaction around errors and CF. The classroom interaction of this study involved the learners' use of humour to deliberately play on English sounds. A good rapport between the teacher and learners and among learners was established when the learners demonstrated solidartiy and formed alignment and also when the teachers could tolerate this joke. A process of socialisation among them thus emerged. On the other hand, when the language play repeatedly influenced the flow of a teacher's teaching, classroom control by the teacher and other learners then emerged. These findings around errors and CF are evidenced in this study, but the current literature on CF again does not

pay attention to learners' intentional play on language sounds. The fifth contribution relates to the instructional focus. CF traditions are based on meaning-oriented classes; however, due to the test-driven context of the educational environment in Taiwan, the course materials used in class, and how the teachers used these materials, all of the classrooms in this study were form-oriented classes. Thus, the current literature fails to account for the focus-on-forms instruction which was salient in the classrooms I observed.

The sixth contribution relates to the age of the participants. CF traditions have largely neglected studies on elementary EFL classes in Asia, so this study helps contribution to the understanding of interaction around CF in this context. The seventh contribution of this study relates to the complicated factors which influenced the CF strategies these teachers adopted in class. The findings reveal that various kinds of factors had an influence on these teachers' CF regarding when to provide CF and how to provide CF. These factors included these teachers' perspectives on errors and CF, their consideration towards individual learner differences, the reoccurrence of errors, the seriousness of errors from the teachers' viewpoint, the behaviour of learners, the teaching experience of the teachers, the language used in class, the course materials, the test-driven context, the instructional focus, and time restrictions. Nonetheless, CF studies which focus on the frequency and effectiveness of CF do not pay attention to these factors because these studies investigate the classic verbal CF strategies teachers adopt following an error and pay attention to whether this error has been corrected after teachers' CF.

The last contribution of this study relates to the CF strategies the teachers used to correct oral errors in class. In addition to the verbal strategies, the nonverbal behaviour and the course materials (e.g. written prompts and the coursebook CD) also served as CF strategies, assisted with each other, or complemented the verbal CF strategies. The findings reveal that these clusters of CF strategies happened in both single and multiple teacher turns. A complex combination of course materials, multiple verbal CF moves, and multiple nonverbal moves was evident across the whole data set. By contrast, the traditional analytic models of existing studies do not include nonverbal CF strategies, and nor do they pay attention to the use of clusters of CF strategies. The reason is that these studies only focus on teachers' single verbal

CF strategies and the immediate performances of learners following the CF. Consequently, the existing analytic models seem insufficient to capture the complexity of the CF strategies that is taking place in this study. In the light of SCT, the findings of the current study also indicate that the teachers adopted dynamic assessment to find out the ZPD of the individual learners. They also frequently co-constructed utterances with the learners when they built scaffolding to correct the errors. The co-constructed interaction between the teachers and their learners also involved multiple forms of mediation as well as clusters of CF strategies. By contrast, the existing CF studies again neglect the notions of SCT in their data analysis.

The current study on CF shows originality in terms of the approaches to data analysis, including taking the perspectives of the participants and the notions of SCT into consideration. The results of this study demonstrate that various kinds of CF strategies, such as the extensive use of nonverbal CF strategies, the use of clusters of CF strategies, the use of a coursebook CD as a CF strategy, and the use of scaffolding, were found in the beginner levels' elementary EFL classrooms. The learners of this study, aged between 11 and 12, were able to point out the nonverbal CF strategies of their teachers. They were also capable of specifying other details relating to the CF process of their teachers, involving the teachers' use of scaffolding. Thus, future research on CF should also consider analysing their data through a bottom-up approach, place a high value on the views of the participants, and be open to every possible kind of CF strategy teachers may adopt to treat learner errors. It is also crucially important to resolve any ambiguity concerning whether a particular teacher turn is in fact error correction or not before embarking on data coding and analysis.

For studies within the wider field of English language teaching, researchers are also recommended to analyse their data through a more nuanced and integrated approach. For example, researchers who investigate classroom-based assessment may pay more attention to teachers' use of nonverbal feedback and the combination of different kinds of feedback. For those researchers who evaluate course materials, they can examine the extent to which there are explicit or implicit messages about error correction and whether there is any advice to teachers about CF and the use of CF strategies. There are also important implications for both pre-service teacher

education and in-service teacher education. Teachers will benefit from being more knowledgeable about CF in general, as well as being able to identify their own CF practices. It may be important to raise awareness about the various ways in which CF strategies can be combined and integrate the notions of SCT into CF in order to help teachers broaden their knowledge of CF. Teachers may also benefit from eliciting the views and feelings about CF from their learners. Action researchers and/or teachers are recommended video-recording or audio-recording their classes and transcribing the interaction between themselves and their learners. Isolating CF episodes in such data can be used as a starting point to find out the nature of their CF practices and reflect on the influences their CF practices have on the English performances of their learners.

Chapter 8
Conclusion

Four years ago, due to the lack of corrective feedback research into elementary English classes in Taiwan, I proposed to contribute to CF studies in EFL context in Asian elementary schools. Initially, I intended to follow existing CF research to investigate the frequency and effectiveness of different types of CF strategies identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997), with the assistance of my teacher interview data and learner interview data. However, unique features of these three classrooms under investigation had already been noticed when I was collecting the data in Taiwan and when I was transcribing the data in the UK. Problematic issues also emerged when I analysed the data through the traditional analytic model. All of these findings suggest that the existing literature does not account for the complexity of the classroom interaction around CF that is evidenced in the data of this study. Thus, I changed my approach to data analysis from a traditional deductive analysis of the data used in CF traditions to an inductive line-by-line microanalysis of the classroom data, with the assistance of the teacher interview data and the learner interview data. Striking findings were presented in Chapters 4-6 and discussed in Chapter 7. Consequently, the results of this study show that the current literature on CF fails to account for what is going on in the classrooms I observed.

In order for further research to capture the complex classroom interaction around CF that is evidenced in the data of this study, it would be necessary to research into CF in different kinds of research settings and through a more nuanced and integrated approach to data analysis. For example, the findings of this study reflect the needs to research into young learners' EFL classrooms. The results also propose that more studies should investigate form-oriented classrooms, collect data through classroom observations, stimulated-recalled teacher interviews, and learner interviews, and refine the theoretical assumptions of CF. The analysis of the data should consider the combination of various kinds of CF strategies, including the use of nonverbal behaviour or course materials to assist in verbal CF strategies or to serve as a CF

strategy. The results of this study also reflect a need to consider teachers' perspectives on what counts as an error and what counts as CF, as well as paying attention to teachers' decision-making on CF. In this study, all of the results were found through an inductive microanalysis of the qualitative classroom data and interview data. Thus, future CF studies are suggested to analyse the data through this nuanced and integrated approach. Lastly, the pedagogic implication of this study is that teachers are encouraged to attend teacher development courses regarding CF and also research into their own classes so that they can be more knowledgeable about the nature of CF and be more aware of the influences CF has on the English performances of learners in class.

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Appendix 1

An Example of the Consent Form (Teachers)

Dear Teacher:

My name is Lan-Ting Huang, and I am a second-year PhD student at the University of Warwick in the United Kingdom. Thank you very much for providing me with an opportunity to conduct research in your class. I deeply appreciate it. My research will take place sometime between late August 2013 and January 2014. You have the right to decide not to participate in this research, decide to participate in some parts of the research only, or withdraw from my research at any time.

The purpose of my research is to investigate how you facilitate learners learning English, so I would like to observe how you teach English in class and how learners learn English in class. Consequently, during the observations, there is no need to change your teaching methods. Please teach your lessons as usual. Additionally, I would like to understand your perceptions of English language teaching and learning.

I will observe one of your classes four times and interview you five times (The first interview will take place before all the observations; the rest four interviews will take place after each observed lesson). All the lessons and the first interview will be both audio- and video-recorded; the rest four interviews will be audio-recorded.

This research is for my PhD study, so some written and oral reports might be done on the basis of this study. When I present my study, personal details that may identify you will be kept confidential.

Finally, if you agree that I could conduct research in your class, you will be able to receive an electronic copy of your recorded lessons, your recorded interview, and my PhD thesis if you wish. Hopefully, you will be able to improve your English language teaching skills and acquire some knowledge after participating in my research.

Thank you very much.

If you agree, please sign your name here _____.
If you disagree, please sign your name here _____.
Why? _____.
Any Further Comments:

Researcher: Lan-Ting Huang

In order to help you understand the University of Warwick I am studying at, the reverse side provides you with information about my university taken from Wikipedia. Thank you.

Appendix 2

An Example of the Consent Form (Learner Parents)

Dear Parents:

My name is Lan-Ting Huang, and I am a second-year PhD student at the University of Warwick in the United Kingdom. Thank you very much for providing me with an opportunity to conduct research in your child's class. I deeply appreciate it. My research will take place sometime between late August 2013 and January 2014. You have the right not to allow your child to participate in this research, to allow him/her to participate in some parts of the research only, or to ask him/her to withdraw from my research at any time.

The purpose of my research is to investigate how your child's English teacher facilitates learners learning English, so I would like to observe how the teacher teaches English in class and how your child learns English in class. Consequently, during the observations, there is no need to change your child's learning methods. Please tell your child to act as usual. I will observe your child's English class four times. Additionally, I would like to understand your child's perceptions of English language teaching and learning, so I will interview your child once. All the lessons and the interview will be both audio- and video-recorded.

This research is for my PhD study, so some written and oral reports might be done on the basis of this study. When I present my study, personal details that may identify your child will be kept confidential. Finally, if you agree that I could conduct research in your child's class, you will be able to receive an electronic copy of my PhD thesis if you wish. Hopefully, your child will be able to improve his/her English language learning skills and acquire some knowledge after participating in my research.

If you 'disagree', please sign your name here _____ and return this form to the teacher. Please tell me your reason. Thank you. _____.

* If you agree to allow me to undertake research in your child's class, you do not need to sign it and also you do not need to return this form. Thank you.

* If you do not sign it or if you do not return this form to the teacher, it is assumed that you agree to allow me to undertake research in your child's class. Thank you.

Any Further Comments:

Researcher: Lan-Ting Huang

In order to help you understand the University of Warwick I am studying at, the reverse side provides you with information about my university taken from Wikipedia. Thank you.

Appendix 3

Examples of Teacher Interview Questions

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1. In your opinion, what is an English error?

2. Can you explain what you understand by error correction?
   - Do you think you correct errors in class? Give an example.

3. Do you correct all the errors in class? Why (not)? Give an example.
   - Do you think all the errors should be corrected? Why (not)?
   - In your opinion, which error should (not) be corrected? Give an example.
   - Which error do you correct in class? How do you decide it? Give an example.

4. In your class, when do you correct errors? Immediately or later?
   - In your opinion, when should errors be corrected?

5. In your opinion, who should correct errors? Teachers, peers, or learners themselves?
   - Do you also do so in class? Why (not)?

6. In your opinion, how can teachers correct errors? Give an example.
   - What are your common ways to correct errors? Why?
   - Which way do you use most frequently? Why?
   - Have you ever thought about changing your way of correcting errors? Why (not)?
   - Have you thought how to correct (specific) errors when you prepare a lesson?
   - Have you used any unprepared way to correct errors during a lesson? If so, how do you decide it? Give an example.

7. Can you explain what you understand by explicit error correction?
   - Do you think you have used it in class? Give an example.

8. Can you explain what you understand by implicit error correction?
   - Do you think you have used it in class? Give an example.

9. What difficulties do you have when you correct errors? Have you tried to overcome them? Why (not)? How?

Appendix 4

Examples of Learner Interview Questions

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1. What does your teacher usually do after you answer a question or speak some English?

2. Does your teacher correct your error?
(If the answer is a 'yes',)
- How do you know it?
- Why does your teacher correct it?
- Do you think it is good to correct your error? All of the errors?
- In your opinion, what is an error?
- When does your teacher correct it? Immediately or later? In your opinion, which one is better? Why?

3. How does your teacher correct your error? Give an example.

4. How does it feel to be corrected by your teacher?

5. What do you do after your teacher's correction? Do you say anything after that? Why (not)? Give an example.

6. What difficulties do you have in understanding your teacher's error correction? Give an example.

7. Do your peers correct your error in class?
(If the answer is a 'yes',)
- Why? Does your teacher ask them to do so?
- Which one do you like better? Your teacher corrects your error or your peer corrects it? Why?

Appendix 5

Phonetic Symbol Chart

(Extracted from Phonemic Chart Keyboard, 2018)

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single vowels				diphthongs		
iː	ɪ	ʊ	uː	ɪə	eɪ	/
sheep	ship	book	shoot	here	wait	
e	ə	ɜː	ɔː	ʊə	ɔɪ	əʊ
left	teacher	her	door	tourist	coin	show
æ	ʌ	ɑː	ɒ	eə	aɪ	aʊ
hat	up	far	on	hair	like	mouth

consonants							
p	b	t	d	ʧ	ʤ	k	g
pea	boat	tree	dog	cheese	joke	coin	go
f	v	θ	ð	s	z	ʃ	ʒ
free	video	thing	this	see	zoo	sheep	television
m	n	ŋ	h	l	r	w	j
mouse	now	thing	hope	love	run	we	you

Appendix 6

The Corrective Feedback Extracts of Amy's class

Extract 4.2 (CO3)

167	Ls L(un)	Where's your home? It's in [/ðə/ /ðiː/] south of the city. Oh, I see. Let me take you home.
168	Amy	*Ok, let's recite it once. Someone pronounced* it's in /ðə/ south of the city *as* it's in **/ðiː/** south of. *Did you hear it?*
169	L(un)	*Is it* [*me?*
170	L(un)	*No.* ((Responding to Amy's question in line 168))]
171	Amy	*Is it you? No, it's a boy in the back. Ok.*

Extract 4.3.2 (CO1)

452	Amy	((pointing to the 'ship' on the blackboard)) ship.
453	Ls Ls	[sheep ship]
454	Amy	*This doesn't* ((making a gesture with her two fingers imitating an open mouth)) *open the mouth,* ship ((making a gesture with her two fingers imitating a slightly open mouth))
455	Ls L(un)	[ship (?)]
456	Amy	((a short pause)) ((with a doubtful face and head movement)) ((a pause)) *I, I feel this side, there is a* ((meanwhile a doubtful face)) *very weird sound* ((meanwhile a slightly smiley face)), *again,* ship.

Extract 4.4 (CO5)

422	Amy	number one, number one ((a pause for at least one second)) /flaɪ/ ((a pause for around 2 seconds)) /flaɪ/ ((a pause for around 1.5 seconds)) /flaɪ/. *Other people, please be quiet. Ok, Number 15, which one to circle,* /aɪ/ *or* /waɪ/ ((looking at L15)).
423	L15	/aɪ/
424	Amy	((looking at the coursebook and then looking at L15 with her mouth open and a surprising face))
425	L10	[*circle* /aɪ/ (↑) ((meanwhile having a doubtful face)) ((turning around and mouthing the correct answer '/waɪ/' to L15))]

426 Amy *is it* (↑) ((saying this in Taiwanese))
427 Ls ((laughter))
428 L10 ((turning around and mouthing the correct answer /waɪ/ to L15))

429 L15 /aɪ/
430 Amy ((with a slightly smiley face)) *is it* (↑) ((saying it in Taiwanese, together with a slightly smiley face))

431 L(un) ((laughter))
432 L10 ((the same as line 428))

433 L(un) *should be* (/flaɪ/?)
434 Amy ((pausing for at least 0.5 second)) /flaɪ../ ((looking at L15))

435 L10 *Which sound did you hear?* ((looking at L15)) ((mouthing '/waɪ/' to L15 for three times))

436 Amy /aɪ/, *which one to circle for* /aɪ/ ((looking at L15 first and then looking at her coursebook)) ((slightly mouthing the sound of '/aɪ/'))
437 L10 ((mouthing '/waɪ/' to L15 for several times)) ((overlapping with Amy's utterance below from his second mouthing))
438 Amy ((looking at L15)) *Number 15, I cannot hear it* ((a pause for one second)) *Which one to circle* (↑) ((while putting her right hand close to the right ear because she wants L15 to speak louder)) ((this action keeping on around one more second)) ((a pause around one second)) ((making a surprising '/h/' sound, together with her mouth open and a surprising face)) *louder*.
439 L15 /aɪ/(↑) ((in an interrogative tone))
440 Amy **/aɪ/**, ((standing up)) *ok, everyone* ((turning towards the blackboard))
441 L(un) **/waɪ/**

442 Ls /waɪ/
443 Amy ((writing down letter 'i' on the blackboard)) /aɪ/, /aɪ/, /aɪ/ ((asking the learners the phonics of letter 'i'))
444 Ls /ɪ/, /ɪ/, /ɪ/ ((Amy miming '/ɪ/'))

445 Amy *The* *sound* *of* /aɪ/ *is* /ɪ/.
446 L(un) /ɪ/

447 L(un) /flɪ/
448 Amy *So what we just heard is* /flaɪ/(↑) *or* /flɪ/(↑)

449 Ls /flaɪ/ ((Amy writes down the correct answer, '/waɪ/', on the blackboard))
Ls /flɪ/

450 Amy *Rubbish* ((with a very happy face)) ((laughing out loud))
451 Ls ((laughing out loud))

452 L(un) /flaɪ/ ((some learners laughing))

453 L(un) /hu `li:/ ((some learners laughing))

454 Amy *You* *'re* *kidding me!* ((in Taiwanese while laughing))

455 L(un) /θri:/

456 L(un) ((laughter))

457 Amy *What I just* *said was* /flaɪ/, ((with a slightly smiley face))

/aɪ/ ((saying this while slightly laughing and also gently laughing after this))

Extract 4.5.1 (CO3)

295 Amy *Number 11, you need to recite the texts alone.* Wake up, Giant, ready (↑), go.

296 L11 (?) (Where?) am I? you (.) are

297 L(un) (?) tiny world

298 L11 in the (.) in the

299 L(un) *be quiet.*

300 L11 Where's your from (↓) ((in a fast pace))

301 Amy ((opening the mouth with a surprising face for around 1 second)) **Where's your from (↑)**

302 Ls ((laughter))

303 L(un) whoa

304 L(un) Where's your from (↑), Where's your from (↑) ((Amy drops a white chalk))

305 Amy *I'm too excited, so I* (?) *the white chalk. Ok, I will write down this sentence. Number 11, please continue to recite the texts* ((the learners laugh))

306 L(un) teeny- tiny world

307 Amy *Ok,* where's your from (↓)

308 Ls ((Laughing))

309 Amy Where's your from (↓), *ok, then,* I'm from England ((the learners laugh))

Extract 4.5.2 (CO3)

493 Amy ((looking at the erroneous sentence on the blackboard for around 2 seconds)) **Where..**'s your (↑) from (↑) ((still looking at this sentence))

494 L(un) Where's your from (↓) ((smiling slightly))

495 Ls ((laughter))

496 L(un) Where's your

497 Ls Where are you from (↓) ((Amy shows a doubtful face and slowly

turning her face to look at Number 11))

498 L(un) Where are you [from (↓)
499 L(un) ((laughter))]

500 L(un) Where are you [from (↓)
501 Amy *Number 11*]

502 L(un) **Where are** [**you from (↓)**
503 L(un) ((laughing out loud))
504 Amy Where's your] from (↓)

504 Amy Where's your from (↓) *this, compared to* [*the coursebook* (.) *pretty different. Ok,*

the [*correct one should be* ((starting to write the correct sentence below the erroneous one))

505 L(un)

506 L(un) *your from*] *Where's your from* (↓)]

507 L(un) you (.) from

508 Amy [where
509 Ls Where are] you from (↓)

Extract 4.6 (CO2)

700 Amy *Ok, everyone, underline* get *first, the* get *on page 30* ((underlining 'get' on the blackboard)) *You write a word above it, write it in Chinese, arrive. the* get *we learnt before meant* ((writing down the Chinese translation of 'arrive'))
701 L(un) arrive

702 L(un) [*take* ((something)) *up*
703 L(un) get up]

704 L1 *take* ((something)) *up*
705 L(un) get up
706 Amy get up *means* '*take* ((something)) *up*' (↑) ((with both a doubtful sound and a surprising sound))

707 L(un) [*get up*
708 L1 ***oh, take***,] *take*

709 L(un) *get up*
710 Amy **get up *means 'take'* (↑)** ((with a doubtful sound))
711 L(un) ***get up***

712 Amy I get up *means* '*I* [*take*' (↑)] ((with a slightly doubtful sound))
((with a smiley face))
((with a surprised face))
713 L(un) [*uh*] *-oh*

714 Amy ((a pause for almost 2 seconds)) *Number One*..(↓) ((looking at L1)), *you regress a bit* ((with a slower pace))

Extract 4.8 (CO1)

114 Amy yep, [Where are you from (↑)
115 Ls [Are you from (↑)] I'm from England. It's a wonderful country. Our country is wonderful, too. Let me show you.

Ls [oh, thank you,] but I'm thirsty.
[oh, (thank?).]

116 Amy *wait,* oh, thank you *or* oh, thanks (↑)

117 Ls [oh, thanks]
Ls [oh, thank you (.) oh, thank you]

118 Amy oh, thank you *or* oh, thanks (↑)
119 Ls oh, thank you
120 Amy oh, thank you, but I'm

Appendix 7

The Corrective Feedback Extracts of Lily's class

Extract 5.3.1 (CO1)

25	Lily	four
26	L(un)	/ˋrʌn..ˋni/
27	Ls	/ˈrʌnɪŋ/ ((Jack points at 'sore throat' on one learner's coursebook))
28	Lily	**four** ((laughter))
29	Ls	/ʃ/
30	Lily	number four ((Jack points at 'sore throat' on the 2nd learner's coursebook))
31	L(un)	/s/../s/.. /lɪn/
32	Jack	number four ((pointing at 'sore throat' on the 3rd learner's coursebook))
33	L(un)	/ʃ/
34	L(un)	/s/
35	Lily	((Making the sound of coughing and touching her throat)) What's this (↑) ((touching her throat)) er ((touching her throat)) ((Jack points at 'sore throat' on the 4th and the 5th learner's coursebook))
36	L(un)	/sɔ: r/
37	L(un)	/ru/
38	L(un)	/sɔ: r/
39	Jack	/sɔːr/
40	Lily	/sɔːr/
41	Jack	/rəʊ/ ((Lily touches her throat))
42	L(un)	/ni/ ((Lily touches her throat))
43	L(un)	/θrəʊ/
44	L(un)	/sɔːr/
45	L(un)	/θrəʊ/
46	Ls	(/bɜːʳ?/)
47	T(un)	Huh?
48	L(un)	/sɔːr/
49	Lily	/sɔːr/

50 L(un) (/səʊl?/)
51 L(un) /θru/

52 L(un) ((Laughter))

53 L(un) /təʊ/
54 Lily (/sɔːr/?) /swor/

55 Ls /swor/

56 Lily /sɔːrt/
57 L(un) *(Very?)* *(embarrassing?)*

Extract 5.3.2 (CO1)

58 Jack **sour** (↑) ((Lily writes down letter t and letter h on the blackboard))
59 L(un) ((Laughter))

60 Lily this one ((looking at letter 't' and letter 'h' and preparing to underline these two letters))
61 Jack no ((shaking his head))

62 Lily /tiː/, /eɪtʃ/ ((underlining letter 't' and letter 'h'))
63 L(un) /ð/
64 L(un) /ð/

65 L(un) /ð/ ((Lily writes down letter r on the blackboard))
66 L(un) /b/ ((Lily writes down letter r on the blackboard))

67 Jack /ð/

68 L(un) /ðrə/
69 L(un) /ðʳ/

70 Lily /ð (.) rə/ ((Writing down letter 'o' and letter 'a' on the blackboard))
71 L(un) (/ð/?)

72 L(un) /θ (.) ʳ/
73 Lily ((pointing at letter 'o' and letter 'a' on the blackboard)) /əʊ/ ((still pointing at letter 'o' and letter 'a'))
74 L(un) /əʊ/

75 L(un) /əʊ/ ((Lily points at letters 't', 'h', 'r', 'o', and 'a' on the blackboard))
76 L(un) /səʊ/ ((Lily points at letters 't', 'h', 'r', 'o', and 'a')

77 L(un) /θrəʊ/ ((Lily points at letters 't', 'h', 'r', 'o', and 'a')

78 L(un) /səʊ/ ((Lily points at letters ‘t’, ‘h’, ‘r’, ‘o’, and ‘a’))
79 Lily /θ (.) rəʊ (.) t/ ((firstly pointing at letters ‘t’, ‘h’, ‘r’, ‘o’, and ‘a’ and then writing down letter ‘t’ on the blackboard while saying /rəʊ (.) t/))

80 L(un) /rəʊ/ ((Lily puts down the piece of chalk))

81 L(un) /rəʊt/ /rəʊt/ ((Lily puts down the piece of chalk))
82 Lily throat

83 L(un) /θr əʊ/

84 L(un) /r (.) əʊ/ (.) /rəʊ (.) t/
85 Jack /rəʊ (.) t/

86 Lily throat
87 Jack throat ((Lily moves towards one learner and uses both of her hands to touch that learner’s throat))

Extract 5.6.2 (CO2)

((Lily points at the PowerPoint slide from line 1072 to line 1075 and smiles slightly from line 1072 to line 1076.))

1072 Lily and this word, should

1073 Ls should
L(un) /ʃɜ:d/

1074 Lily should

1075 Ls should
L(un) /ʃɜ:/ ((The girl in line 1073 makes another phonolgical error.))

1076 Lily ok, next doctor

Extract 5.7.1 (CO3)

169 Lily I don’t feel good. I have a /ˈstʌmə/ (.) /keɪ/
170 L(A) How long have you had a /ˈstʌməkeɪ(k?)/
171 Lily I have had /ˈstʌməˌkeɪ(k?)/ for three days.
172 L(A) You start take medicine for one week.
173 Lily Thank you, doctor.
174 L(A) You’re welcome.

Extract 5.7.2 (CO4)

189 Lily this one ((pointing at ‘you’ on the PowerPoint slide))
190 L(A) You (.) /ʃɔ:l/ (.) take /ˈmedə/ for one week.
191 Lily Ok, what’s this (↑) ((pointing at ‘you’ on the PowerPoint slide))
192 L(A) you /ʃɔ:l/

193 Lily /ʊ/
194 L(A) /ʊ/, /ʃʊ/

195 Lily /ʃʊ/ [/ʃʊ/
196 L(A) /ʃʊ/]

197 Lily ok, should
198 L(A) should

Extract 5.8 (CO3)

344 Lily David, can you ask her (↑) ((firstly pointing at David and then pointing at Mandy))
345 L(D) Do you (.) have (.) a (.) /ˈtuːθ/ (.) /eɪ/ (↑)
346 L(M) Yes ((Jack points at both 'yes' and 'no' answers)), I (.) **DO** have (.) a toothache. ((Lily points at the 'yes' answer))

347 Lily ok, one more time. [I ((laughing and pointing at the PowerPoint slide)) ((nodding her head while saying 'I'))
348 L(M) Yes, [I do have a
349 Lily I do have a] ((pointing at this sentence and nodding her head))
350 L(M) toothache.
351 Lily ok, next one, Jim.

Extract 5.11.1 (CO3)

393 Lily Everyone, I (start?) here. Does ((pointing at the PowerPoint slide))

394 Ls Does [she have a headache (↑) ((Lily points at the PowerPoint slide)) ((Lily smiles after hearing the error, 'she'))
395 Jack she have a headache (↑)] ((Lily points at the PowerPoint slide)) ((Lily smiles after hearing the error, 'she'))
396 Lily ok, David, stand up. ((her hand facing up and pointing towards David)) ((smiling)) he (↑) or she (↑) ((smiling)) ((pointing at David))
397 Ls he ((smiling)) ((Lily points at David))
398 Lily he, ((smiling)) ((pointing at David)) ok, so the sentence again. ((pointing at the PowerPoint slide)) ((smiling))

399 Jack [Does he have a headache (↑) ((Lily points at the PowerPoint slide))
400 Ls Does he have a headache (↑) ((Lily points at the PowerPoint slide))
401 Lily Does he have a headache (↑)] ((pointing at the PowerPoint slide))

yes (↑) or no (↑) ((pointing at both 'yes' and 'no' answers on the PowerPoint slide and then her hand facing up plus a smiley face))

Extract 5.11.2 (CO3)

((From line 412 to line 415, Lily points at both the 'yes' and 'no' answer on the PowerPoint slide))

412 Lily Let me ask you, 'Does David have a /beɪ/ (.) /keɪ/ (↑)' Yes or no. ((The correct utterance is 'backache'.))

413 L(un) yes

414 Ls she

415 L(un) [he

416 L(un) Yes,] [he

417 Lily yes] [does. ((slightly nodding her head)) ((pointing at the PowerPoint slide))

418 Ls she]

419 Ls he

420 Lily she (↑) or he (↑) ((looking at the learner, Cindy, and pointing at her for a very short time))

421 L(un) he does ((another learner responds to Lily's question)) ((Lily looks at the learner, Cindy))

422 L(un) no

423 L(C) [she ((the learner, Cindy))

424 Lily yes,] ((pointing at the PowerPoint slide))

425 L(un) she

426 L(un) [he does.

427 Lily she (↑).] I hear [her she (↑) ((Looking at the learner, Cindy, and moving towards Cindy with a smiley face)) ((Jack looks at Cindy and slightly moves towards Cindy with a slightly doubtful face))

428 L(C) **HE..**]

429 Lily ok, ((nodding her head with a smiley face plus pointing at the PowerPoint slide)) [yes ((pointing at the PowerPoint slide with a smiley face))

430 L(un) he does]

Appendix 8

The Corrective Feedback Extracts of Tina's Class

Extract 6.2.1 (CO2)

((Unit 3's main texts are printed out on big posters by the coursebook publisher and attached on the blackboard by Tina. Tina points at the texts on the poster when these two learners below are reading them.))

656 L1 A can of juice is twenty dollars, and a bottle of juice is /sɜ:..ˈsɜ:ti/ dollars. ((Tina points at the texts on the poster))

657 Tina thirty, ((you)) *need to stick out the tongue,* thirty. ((pointing her finger at her mouth when she sticks her tongue out and says this sentence))

658 L1 /ˈsɜ:ti/

659 Tina *You didn't stick out the tongue*, /ˈθɜ:tis/. ((pointing her finger at her mouth when she sticks her tongue out and says this sentence))

660 L1 thirty

661 Tina dollars

662 L1 dollars

Extract 6.2.2 (CO2)

((Two learners were playing the roles of two characters of Unit 3's main texts. Tina pointed at the text on the poster when they were reading it.))

663 Tina *ok, your turn.* Alice, *come on.* ((pointing at the learner who plays the role of Alice))

664 L2 How much is a bottle of milk (↑)

665 L1 /ɪz/ (thirty?)-/faɪ/ ((Tina mouths 'five')) /ˈsɜ:ti/-/faɪ/ dollars.

666 Tina *again,* (it's?) /ˈθɜ:..ti/ ((sticking her tongue out and elongating the sound of '/θɜ:/')) /faʊ/ ((slightly sticking her tongue out))

667 L1 It is /ˈsɜ:ti/-/faɪ/ dollars.

668 Tina good, *ok, everyone, pay attention, when you say* thirty ((writing 'thirty' on the blackboard)) Thirty *is thirty, isn't it?* ((writing number 30 above 'thirty')) *You need to remember to stick out the tongue* ((pointing at her mouth)) *because you learnt* ((this)) *before that* /ti:/-/eɪtʃ/ ((underlining letter 't' and letter 'h' on the blackboard)) *needs sticking out the tongue* ((pointing at her mouth)) *so come on, follow* ((me)), *read* ((it)) *once,* /ˈθɜ:tis/ ((sticking her tongue out and elongating the sound of '/θɜ:/'))

669 L(un) thirty

670 Ls thirty
L(un) /ˈθɜ:tiər/

671 Tina /ˈθɜ:tis/

672 Ls thirty
Ls /ˈsɜːti/
L(un) /ˈθɜːtiər/

673 Tina *ok, then, this is pronounced* /ˈsɜːti/-/faɪ/.

674 Ls thirty-/faɪ/
Ls /ˈsɜːti/-/faɪ/

675 Tina *ok, next, whose turn* (↑) *Is it* Alice (↑)

Extract 6.3 (CO2)
((Tina looks at either her coursebook or the posters on the blackboard when her learners are reading the texts after the coursebook's CD. Most of the time, Tina pauses the CD to allow the learners to repeat a sentence after the CD.)) ((When Tina is correcting her learners' errors below, she stops the CD. Additionally, most of the time, she is looking at her coursebook, and occasionally, she looks at her learner.))

210 CD Here you are, and here's your change.

211 Ls Here you are ((Tina stops the CD)) and here is your
L(un) her

Ls change
L /ˈtʃeɪn..dʒ/

212 Tina *One more time, come on,* 'Here you are'

213 Ls Here you are, and
here

214 Tina *come on,* ((It)) *is* here, listen
215 L(un) *yes.*
216 Tina and
217 L(un) and
218 Tina here's

219 Ls and here your /ˈtʃeɪn(dʒ?)/
L(un) /æn/ here
L(un) here's

220 Tina your (.) change

221 L(un) your /ˈtʃeɪntʃ/
222 Tina /ˈtʃeɪn..dʒ/
223 Ls /ˈtʃeɪn..dʒ/

Extract 6.5 (CO4)

((Flashcards of the new words, together with pictures of these words (see Figure 6.4 above), designed by the coursebook publisher are attached on the blackboard by Tina.))

497 Tina *so, two hands* ((pointing at a picture)) *come on, say it once,* hands. ((using a finger to underline 'hands'))

498 L(un) hand

499 Ls hands
L /ˈhæn..dəs/

500 Tina *No, it is pronounced* 'hands'. ((using a finger to underline 'hands'))

501 L(un) hands

502 Ls /hæn..dz/
(hand?)

Extract 6.6.1 (CO4)

989 Tina *ok, when you said this word* ((writing down 'hand' on the blackboard))

990 L(un) /heɪ..(d?)/

991 Tina *What did it* ((CD)) *say* (↑)

992 Ls /heɪ/
L(un) /ˈheɪ..dəs/ ((Tina writes down letter 's' on the blackboard))

993 Tina *Did you hear the sound of '*/d/*'* (↑) ((pointing at 'hands' on the blackboard))

994 L(un) *Yes*
L(un) *No*

995 L(un) /heɪ..s/

996 L(un) /hæn..(?)/

997 Tina *Did it* ((CD)) (↑)

998 Ls *no*
L *yes*
L(un) /hæn../
L(un) /hæn..s/

999 Tina *It* ((CD)) *said* /ˈhæn..dəz/ *or said* /hæn..z/*?* ((pointing at 'hands' on the blackboard))

1000 Ls /ˈhæn..z/
Ls /hæn..dəz/
L(un) /ˈhæn..dəs/
L(un) /ˈhæn..dədʒ/

1001 Tina *Was there a sound of '/d/'* (↑)
1002 L(un) *ought to be* /ˈhæn..dəs/

1003 L(un) *yes*
Ls *no*
L(un) /ˈhæn..dəz/

1004 Tina *Ok, it's all right. Let's listen* ((to the CD)) *again*.

Extract 6.6.2 (CO4)

1024 Tina *Did you hear it* (↑)

1025 Ls *yes*
L(un) /hed/
L(un) /hæn../
L(un) *not saying '/s/'*
L(un) *It had '/d/'*

1026 Tina *Did it say it* (↑) ((pointing at 'hands' on the blackboard))

1027 Ls *No*
1028 Tina *Did it say the sound of '/d/'?* ((pointing at 'hands'))

1029 Ls *No*
1030 L(un) *No, (just?), (/d/?), No*
1031 Tina *Yes, so* ((you)) *should remember it.* ((pointing at 'hands')) *Although it said* /hæn..d/ *in the singular* ((using her hand to erase letter 's' in the air and then to cover letter 's')), *if adding* ((an)) 's' ((using her finger to write letter 's' in the air)), *it is pronounced* 'hands' ((pointing at 'hands'))
1032 L(un) ((I)) *guessed* ((the answer)) *correctly.*
1033 L(un) (no?), (/hæn/?)
1034 L(un) *but adding an* 's' *((is)) different.*

1035 L(un) /hæn..d/
L(un) /hæn..z/
L(un) /hæn(z?)/

1036 Tina hands ((pointing at 'hands' and nodding her head))

1037 L(un) /hændz/
L(un) /hæn..d/
L(un) /hæn..dz/
L(un) /hæn../

1038 L(un) (?)
1039 Tina *Right, is it* okay (↑)
1040 L(un) okay ((in a weird sound))

Extract 6.9 (CO2)

129 Tina ((writing on the blackboard)) *Ok, this unit mainly teaches this pattern (.) these two patterns. Let's read them aloud once.*

130 Ls How much is a piece of cake (↑)
L3 /keɪ**kə..**/

131 Tina good, cake

132 Ls cake
L3 /keɪ**kə**/

133 Tina cake

134 Ls cake
L3 /keɪ**kə**/

135 Tina '/k/' *is voiceless, so pronounce* 'cake'.
136 L(un) /keɪ**kə**/
137 Tina *that* '/k/' *(.) too (?)* '/k/'.
138 L(un) /k/, /kə/
139 L(un) /kə/
140 Tina *ok, next, the answer*

Extract 6.10 (CO2)

((The poster of the sentence patterns in Figure 6.6 is attached to the blackboard by Tina. Tina points at the texts on the poster when her learners are reading them.))

142 Tina *If this dollar* ((her finger circling 'dollar')) *more than one dollar* ((her finger gesturing number '*1*')), *for example, two dollars* ((her finger gesturing number '*2*')), *this* dollar *needs to add* ((an)) 's'. ((her finger circling letter 's'))
143 L(un) /eɪ..s/
144 Tina *If* ((there's)) *only one dollar, you say, 'It's one dollar'.* ((her finger gesturing number '*1*'))

145 Ls It's one dollar.
Ls /i:/
L4 **It's one dollars.**

146 Tina ((turning her head to look at L4)) *No 's'.* ((looking at L4 plus gesturing a 'stop' sign with a palm))

It's one (.) dollar ((while nodding her head, her finger pointing out number '*1*', and her head moving from looking at L4 towards the direction of looking at the poster again – but not yet)).

147 Ls one..dollar

148 Tina ((Gesturing a 'stop' sign with her palm and her face looking serious and staring at another side of the classroom before looking at the poster – because she was listening to the learners' response)) *Right.*

Extract 6.11 (CO2)

432 Tina *ok, Question One, the first one,* ((I)) *just said, what is 'buy'* (↑) ((asking the learners the Chinese translation of 'buy'.))
433 L(un) *(Two cans?)*
434 L(un) *She buys two cans.*
435 L(un) (?)
436 Ls *buy*
437 Tina *yes, so what does it say* (↑) ((asking the learners the Chinese translation of Question One))
438 L(un) *she buys*
439 Ls *a can of juice and a can of milk* ((Tina mouths the answer while looking at her coursebook))

440 Tina Bottle *is a bottle.* ((while looking at the learners plus her left finger gesturing number '1'))
441 L(un) *a bottle of milk*

442 Tina *so, a bottle of what* (↑)
443 Ls *a bottle of milk.*